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The Early Teaching of History in Secondary Schools

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I. WHY HISTORY CAME INTO THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES¹

This paper begins a series of studies upon the early teaching of history in the United States, with particular reference to the States of Massachusetts and New York, which Dr. Russell will contribute to the *MAGAZINE* during the school year 1914-1915. These articles will be of wide interest to history teachers throughout the country; they constitute the first serious attempt to study the aims and conditions of early history teaching in secondary schools. Such studies have heretofore been made for the teaching of history in American colleges and universities (*e. g.*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Circular of Information, No. 2, 1887), but no adequate attempt has been made to describe the work in secondary schools. Dr. Russell and the editor will welcome comment upon the series and illustrations of early history teaching in other parts of the country.—EDITOR.

The original cause or set of causes which paved the way for the entrance of history into the curricula of our secondary schools cannot but be of value in the consideration of modern aims; and inasmuch as teachers are slavish in their imitation of the past and zealous in their transfer to new generations of the ways and customs of their predecessors, it is important to determine why history was once taught in order to judge of our progress in present times. Accordingly there are presented here the results of a study of early aims; a study incomplete in its scope, but accurate as far as the data examined prove.

The early advocates of the teaching of history based their arguments upon a variety of grounds, and great diversity existed almost at the start. There was no serial development of aims, nor was there a particular end at one period with progressive additions in following years. All the values which are here considered were anticipated practically at the beginning. An evolutionary treatment of the reasons

for the introduction of history into the curriculum is therefore impossible.

In general, history came into the curriculum for the purpose of moral training, to provide for the leisure period, to give religious training, to inspire patriotism, to obviate international prejudices, to train for citizenship, and to provide discipline of the mind. These classifications are made in an arbitrary way, despite duplication and overlapping, for the purpose of securing clarity and organization.

A. Moral Training

There are numerous advocates of history who base their arguments upon hopes of the moral training to result. In his "Plan for an English School," 1743, Benjamin Franklin said:

"For their further improvement and a little to vary their studies, let them now begin to read history, after having got by heart a short table of the principle epochs in chronology. * * * In remarking upon history, the master will have fine opportunities for instilling instruction of various kinds, and improving the morals as well as the understanding of the youth."²

Alexander F. Tytler expressed a similar purpose:

"The superior efficacy of example to precept is universally acknowledged. All laws of morality and rules of conduct are verified by experience and are constantly submitted to its test and examination. History, which adds to our own experience an immense treasure of the experience of others, furnishes innumerable proofs, by which we may verify all the precepts of morality and prudence."³

Morse and Parish recommended their "Compendious History of New England" in 1809 because

"History has always been a persuasive method of instructing mankind. * * * She displays the felicity of goodness, and the miseries of vice, unfolds the time when many prophecies have been fulfilled and produces confidence in those which remain. Examples of individuals great and good, of communities distinguished for integrity and success, powerfully persuade to an imitation of their virtues."⁴

² J. Sparks, "Works of Benjamin Franklin," vol. II, pp. 128-9.

³ A. F. Tytler, "Elements of General History," New York, 1819.

⁴ Morse and Parish, "A Compendious History of New England," 1809, pp. 13-4.

¹ The sources of information are, (1) statements of men prominent at the time; (2) reminiscences of men who were trained at the time; (3) reports of principals; and (4) introductions and "suggestions to teachers" in early textbooks.

C. A. Goodrich, in the most popular of all early history texts, suggested that

"History sets before us striking instances of virtue, enterprise, courage, generosity, patriotism, and, by a natural principle of emulation, incites us to copy such noble examples. History also presents us with pictures of the vicious ultimately overtaken by misery and shame, and thus solemnly warns us against vice."⁵

Following each chapter in his text, Goodrich indulges in a series of reflections, calculated to lead the pupil to a consummation of the aim desired. Following Columbus, for instance, he says:

"While we admire the lofty character of Columbus and look with wonder at the consequences which have resulted from his discovery, let us emulate his decision, energy, and perseverance. Many are the occasions in the present world on which it will be important to summon these to our aid; and by their means many useful objects may be accomplished, which, without them, would be unattained."⁶

Peter Parley (S. G. Goodrich) expressed the same feeling:

"After possessing a knowledge of religion and the duties we owe to God and our neighbor, history is the most important of all studies. It relates to us what has been done by mankind, and thus teaches us what we may do. It acquaints us with the true character of our race, and enables us to know ourselves better. It apprizes us of the existence of evil and the way to shun it; it acquaints us with the existence of good, and shows us how to attain it."⁷

This may suffice to show that importance was early attached to history as an agent of moral training. It must, indeed, have been a powerful argument for a people with puritanic ideals.

B. Provision for the Leisure Period

Supplementary to the moral training aim was the argument that history would provide for the leisure period. The novels and light literature of the day were not deemed proper for the youth, and through a process of substitution, therefore, anything which would adequately and safely occupy the period between work and sleep would make for moral good. Accordingly the following arguments had weight:

"It is highly important that the study of *History* and *Chronology* should be generally introduced into our common schools, that young persons of both sexes may be instructed in their outlines. This is desirable not so much for the sake of the knowledge thus to be acquired as for the benefit which it may afford for further improvement, by enabling the pupil to pursue the study with satisfaction and advantage, after the season of attending school is past; by cherishing a taste for a more profitable course of reading than is now generally pursued; a course which will tend more to strengthen the mind and improve the character, embracing less of fiction and more of fact, fewer novels and more history."⁸

⁵ C. A. Goodrich, "History of the United States," 1828, p. 6.

⁶ C. A. Goodrich, "History of the United States," 1824, p. 20.

⁷ Peter Parley, "First Book of History," N. Y., 1831.

⁸ J. E. Worcester, "An Epitome of History," Cambridge, Mass., 1826.

Tytler, in his "General History" published in 1801, said:

"The value of any science is to be estimated according to its tendency to promote improvement, either in private virtue, or in those qualities which render man extensively useful in society. Some objects of pursuit have a secondary utility; in furnishing rational amusement, which relieving the mind at intervals from the fatigue of serious occupation, invigorates and prepares it for fresh exertion. It is the perfection of any science, to unite these advantages, to promote the advancement of the public and private virtue, and to supply such a degree of amusement as to supercede the necessity of recurring to frivolous pursuits for the sake of relaxation. Under this description falls the science of history."⁹

When we consider the ideas of the time and the conservative views of the schoolman, such an argument must have helped call attention to the worth of the new subject. It is not mentioned frequently, however, and in all probability was not important.

It is interesting to note that provision for the period of leisure was early considered as one of the duties of the school, and that the admission of a new subject was urged upon such grounds. The school cannot attribute, therefore, its present lack of provision in this direction, to lack of suggestion from the past.

C. Religious Training

When the Bible was used as a reader, when religion was a powerful element in the school, a subject supposed to be efficient for religious training was welcome in the curriculum of the time. Such was the condition in many parts of the United States during the first third of the nineteenth century. Text-books employed the religious argument as a plea for their adoption, teachers rested their estimate of the value of the subject upon this ground, and there is a textbook at hand which was written in supposedly biblical language. Note, for instance, the story of Columbus in its new dress:

"3. Moreover the name of the country was called after the name of a great man, who was born in a place called Genoa; being in Italia on the sea coast.

"4. His name was Christopher, surnamed Columbus.

"5. As the righteous man struggleth against wickedness, so did he against ignorance and stupidity.

"6. Nevertheless it came to pass that in the fourteen hundred and ninety second year of the Christian era, that he crossed the waters of the mighty deep, a thing that had never been known among the sons of men.

"7. And the place where he landed was an island in the sea, nigh unto the continent of Columbia, called Salvador, which being interpreted, signifieth a place of safety.

"8. And the place was inhabited by wild savages, and they were naked," etc., etc.¹⁰

⁹ A. F. Tytler, "Elements of General History," New York, 1819, p. xii.

¹⁰ G. J. Hunt, "The Historical Reader" containing the Late War between the United States and Great Britain from June, 1812, to February, 1815, in the Scriptural Style, p. 73.

The author makes explanation as follows:

"The author having adopted for the model of his style the phraseology of the best books, remarkable for its simplicity and strength, the young pupil will acquire with the knowledge of reading, a love for the manner in which the great truths of Divine Revelation are conveyed to his understanding, and this will be an inducement to him to study the Holy Scriptures."¹¹

Mr. Hunt did not recognize the religious value in history, itself. The selection is given to illustrate the fact that an appeal to the religious side was influential in securing the adoption of a text.

Other books, however, claim great religious value for the subject matter of history itself. Butler said in 1818:

"The first part is calculated to lead the youthful mind to a correct knowledge of the basis on which the Jewish and Christian churches rest; and by the illustration of general prophecy, also to lead the youthful mind to a correct knowledge of the providence and government of God."¹²

The following quotation from the book illustrates the manner in which this aim was carried into practice:

"Could thirteen independent sovereignties, in a time of peace, agree to make such mutual sacrifice of interest, as to unite in a general government?

"A. They did, and delegated to that government powers of coercion, sufficient to regulate their foreign and domestic affairs, with a dignity and respectability suitable to a great nation.

"Q. What may we learn from an event of such magnitude, so novel, so unprecedented?

"A. That the God of our fathers who planted this vine in the wilderness is able to protect it, and will protect it, so long as we continue faithful to ourselves and to our God.

"Q. Have there been any other efforts to destroy this little church in the wilderness?

"A. The luxuries of the old world, with all their alluring train of vices and corruption, have made steady and rapid inroads. French philosophy and infidelity, with all their alluring and ensnaring wiles, have spread through the land for a half a century past, like a pestilence that walketh in darkness, and wasteth at noon-day.

"Q. Have they shaken the pillars of the Reformation?

"A. No; the God of our fathers has risen in the majesty of his power; put the demon under his feet, and swept away with his hail, all his refuges of lies; and the church is rising again to put on her beautiful garments.

"Q. Did the Reformation extend into South America?

"A. No; South America was settled by Spain and Portugal about one century before North America, and about a quarter of a century before the Reformation begun, by Martin Luther.

"Q. Was the papal religion planted there?

"A. Yes; with all its ignorance and superstition; and it continues there to this day, with all its degrading effects on that southern world.

"Q. What is the comparative difference of character between North and South America?

¹¹ *Ibid*, p. iii.

¹² Butler, "A Catechetical Compend of General History, Sacred and Profane; from the Creation of the World to the Year 1817 of the Christian Era," Hartford, 1818. Preface.

"A. Greater than language can express.

"Q. To what may this be imputed?

"A. Entirely to the difference in character between the Papal and Protestant religions.

"Q. Are their soil and climate equal to North America?

"A. Yes, far superior; and their mines are the richest in the world.

"Q. Will this contrast teach us rightly to estimate our privileges?

"A. It ought to make us the most grateful and contented people in the world; since God has blest us with the means of being the most happy."¹³

Goodrich, in 1822, said:

"History displays the dealings of God with mankind. It calls upon us often to regard with awe his darker judgments and again it awakens the liveliest emotions of gratitude for his kind and benignant dispensations. It cultivates a sense of dependence upon him; strengthens our confidence in his benevolence, and impresses us with a conviction of his justice."¹⁴

In his reflections the influence of this aim can be constantly seen. When considering Columbus, he says:

"Another consideration of still deeper interest is suggested by the story of Columbus. In his first voyage he contemplated chiefly the discovery of the passage to India. We, who live to mark the wonderful events which have flowed from his discovery, within the short space of three centuries, cannot but advert with awe to HIM, who attaches to the action of a single individual, a train of consequences so stupendous and unexpected. How lightly soever, then, we may think of our conduct, let us remember that the invisible hand of Providence may be connecting with our smallest actions the most stupendous results, to ourselves and others."¹⁵

In reflecting upon the American Revolution, he says:

"What a lesson may tyranny gather from this! And how thankful should we be, that a just Providence is above, who regards the affairs of men—who turns aside the trampling heel of oppression and causes the blood wrung out by tyranny to ery from the ground, and to call forth the spirit of liberty."¹⁶

The final paragraph in the book is as follows:

"Let but the spirit, the practical wisdom, the religious integrity of the first planters of our soil, prevail among rulers and subjects—let God be acknowledged, by giving that place to his word and institutions which they claim—and all these blessings are ours. We shall enjoy peace with nations abroad, and tranquility at home. * * * Happy is that people that is in such a case, yea, happy is that people whose God is the Lord."¹⁷

Hildreth, in 1830, said:

"An important object of the work will be to impress the minds of the young with the distinguishing goodness of Divine Providence in giving them birth and dwelling in this country, and thus to lead them to consider and adopt

¹³ *Ibid*, pp. 114-6.

¹⁴ C. A. Goodrich, *op. cit*, p. 6.

¹⁵ C. A. Goodrich, *op. cit*, p. 20.

¹⁶ *Ibid*, p. 146.

¹⁷ *Ibid*, p. 395.

a course of conduct most obviously connected with their own happiness and with the general welfare."¹⁸

This aim for the teaching of history was of importance, especially in more religious communities. It did not persist, however, and its popularity gradually diminished.

Its greatest value lay in the introduction of "biblical antiquities" which became in time broader and more inclusive, forming finally an entering wedge for history.

D. Patriotism

In 1799, Hannah Adams wrote:

"Enough, however, she trusts is said to impress the minds of young persons with veneration for those eminent men, to whom their posterity are so highly indebted."¹⁹

Morse and Parish, in 1809, said:

"Every person should possess some knowledge of the history of his own country. It seems necessary to the existence of a true and enlightened patriotism."²⁰

Superintendent Pierce, of Michigan, reported in 1836:

"A history, every incident of which has a tendency to inspire a reverence for the institutions of our country ought to be 'familiar as household words' to those on whose intelligence and patriotism the future hopes of the republic are based."²¹

In the argument for United States history in the first teacher training classes founded in New York in 1835, the precursor of the first normal school, Gideon Hawley, spoke as follows:

"In the character of the men who stood foremost in the contest for independence, the measures of provocation by which they were roused to resistance, the trials through which they passed, the reverses which they sustained, the triumphs which they achieved, and the great political principles which were vindicated by them, there are lessons of instruction not inferior in value to any which can be drawn from the history of any age or people; and if the mind of every youth can be made familiar with them, and his feelings imbued with the moral they contain, no better security can be provided against the degeneracy of that unconquerable spirit, in which the foundations of our freedom were laid."²²

This argument for the teaching of history is constantly brought forward. Man after man, book after book, find in it one of the great values consequent upon the new subject.

One further illustration is cited to show the occasional degeneration of this aim. In the history published by A. S. Barnes in 1871, is found a "flowery" sample of a type to be avoided:

¹⁸ Hosea Hildreth, "A View of the United States," Boston, 1830, p. iv.

¹⁹ Hannah Adams, "An Abridgement of the History of New England," Dedham, 1799.

²⁰ Morse and Parish, "A Compendious History of New England, Newburyport, 1809. Preface.

²¹ Michigan, "Report of Supt. of Public Instruction," 1837, pp. 16-17.

²² New York, "Report of the Regents of the University to the Senate," 1835, p. 95.

"Finally this work is offered to the American youth in the confident belief that as they study the wonderful history of their native land, they will learn to prize their birthright more highly, and treasure it more carefully. Their patriotism must be kindled, when they come to see how slowly, yet how gloriously, the tree of liberty has grown, what storms have wrenched its boughs, what sweat of toil and blood have moistened its roots, what eager eyes have watched every outspringing bud, what brave hearts have defended it, loving it even unto death. A heritage thus sanctified by the heroism and devotion of the fathers can but elicit the choicest care and tenderest love of the sons."²³

The unfortunate feature of this type of purpose has been the kind of history that it has developed. It has put emphasis upon battles and sieges, upon the good side of heroes and the bad side of mankind. Rarely was there a conception of true patriotism, dissociated from emotionalism.

One notable exception to the narrow treatment of patriotism has come to light. It seems worthy of a separate heading.

E. To Overcome International Prejudice

It is rather surprising that before 1840 we should see an advocate of history as a means of overcoming international prejudices, and of furthering the cause of international peace. This aim, as a sure guide to the proper sort of patriotism, powerful to-day, was still in its infancy in 1838, when William Dunlap brought out his "History of New York for Schools." He says:

"It is not our part to forget but to *forgive*. And while we remember the injuries inflicted and attempted by the government of Great Britain, let us bear in mind the many, many blessings, we owe to England and Englishmen. The first press that came to the colonies was sent from England * * * the first printer that came hither was an Englishman; the sentiments of republicanism we now feel are from England; * * * we owe to *her* literature, law, religion, * * * not to her government, but to her poets, philosophers, statesmen, and divines. To enumerate the good derived from England would require pages; but I must mention *one* that is beyond all price—*language*. Our language is that of Shakespeare and Milton; while those who are not familiarized to the idiom of these great men from infancy, are blind to their beauties, to us they are as 'household words' ever in our mouths and in our hearts."²⁴

F. Training for Citizenship

In a new country where a new governmental experiment was being worked out, it was not strange that the aim of training for citizenship should early have been brought to the fore. Where there is but little direct participation on the part of the people in governmental affairs, little training is needed for the masses; but where each man "may be called upon to discharge important duties," to use the word of C. A. Goodrich (written in 1822), "either by his vote

²³ Anon., "History of the United States," A. S. Barnes, 1871.

²⁴ William Dunlap, "A History of New York for Schools," New York, 1838. Preface.

or by the administration of office, it is the business of all to be more or less acquainted with the science of politics. Nothing can better instruct us in this than the study of history." This new duty of a republic was early appreciated, and was undoubtedly an aid in the introduction of a subject calculated to further this end. It is not strange, therefore, that the rise of history in importance became especially noticeable in New York and Massachusetts from 1825 to 1830. This was just the period when Jacksonian Democracy was coming to its own, and when the suffrage was being extended to all the people.

Tytler, in Edinburgh, makes a plea for history on the basis of a better understanding of the government by "a man of liberal birth." He says:

"In this country it is the indispensable duty of every man of liberal birth to be acquainted in a certain degree with the science of Politics; and History is the school of Politics. It opens to us the springs of human affairs; the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions and falls of empires. It points out the reciprocal influence of government and national manners; it dissipates the prejudices, nourishes the love of our country, and directs to the best means of improvement; it illustrates equally the blessings of political union, and the miseries of faction; the danger on the one hand of uncontrolled liberty; and on the other the debasing influence of despotic power."²⁵

Morse and Parish, dealing with the comparatively local situation in New England, show that the history of New England impresses the future citizen with the need for law and order. They say:

"There is much truth in the remark of a European writer (Mather): 'Were not the cold climate of New England supplied with *good laws and discipline*, the barrenness of that country would never have brought people to it, nor have advanced it in consideration and formidableness above other English plantations, exceeding it much in fertility and other inviting qualities.'²⁶

Goodrich, cited above, showed the need for the application of Tytler's idea, not only to men of "liberal birth" but to each man. Langdon Cheves, in a letter quoted in Grimshaw's "History of the United States," says:

"Well written history is the best political instructor and under a new government in which it is the blessing of the country that the people should govern, its pages should be constantly in the hands of our youth and open to the humblest citizen in our widespread territories"²⁷

It is in this period, the twenties and thirties that the youth of the country are often referred to as the "future guardians and depositories of the liberty of our country."²⁸ Apparently education with this purpose took upon itself a new dignity. There was a rapid response, in localities at least, to the growing needs of democracy.

Elizabeth Peabody in her "Chronological History of the United States" said, in 1856:

"For the first time in the *Recorded* history, there is a nation whose government directly depends upon the mass of the people, every individual of whom becomes a creator of its events, in precise ratio with his personal energy; and even those who have no energy, cannot avoid having an influence, by hanging as a dead weight upon the wheels of progress.

"There is nothing, therefore, which can be studied of more immediate and practical value to Americans, than history, showing as it does the origin and consequences of national action, and instructing everyone what to do and what to leave undone, in his own inevitable action, as citizen, legislator, executive officer or voter, one of which necessarily every American must be. Because God wills that no good should come to human society, except thru the action of men and women, whom He is always ready to inspire with love and wisdom, He gives to everyone besides reason and affection, the memory of past experiences in history; and to Americans, at least, the opportunity of making new experiments in the light of truth."²⁹

"It is better in my opinion," said the Principal of Dutchess County Academy in 1844, "for a lad to know something about the laws and institutions of his own State than about the stars, which will do as they like for us; but by knowing the laws we can better control others and ourselves."³⁰

It is obvious that this aim of the teaching of history was of great importance, and with the gradual growth of the idea of education as the function of the State, must have gone a growth in the recognition of history and politics as subjects of value.

G. Discipline

When faculty psychology was the order of the day, and when people believed that the thorough mastery of one field would transfer widely, the discipline of mind was the chief end of education. If the inveterate pursuit of one subject would train for all situations of life, what economy would there be in the formation of the all too small number of specific habits which the school could form?

The early advocate of history appreciated this point, and without relinquishing his other arguments, he added this to his already long list.

Goodrich set up the fact that "history strengthens and disciplines the mind" as an "aim of inferior importance," yet not to be disregarded."³¹ For him it was a discipline because it dealt with "virtue, enterprise and courage." For Worcester it was a discipline, because it "affords a melancholy view of human nature, governed by the baser passions; and is to a lamentable degree little else than a register of human crime and calamity, of war and suffering."³² This would appear to be an early form of G. Stanley Hall's doctrine of *Katharsis*. Worcester continues:

"A use of history is to improve the understanding and strengthen the judgment. * * * It adds to our expe-

²⁵ A. F. Tytler, *op. cit.*, p. xii.

²⁶ Morse and Parish, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

²⁷ Grimshaw, "History of the United States," Philadelphia, 1824. Introduction.

²⁸ See New York, "Report of the Regents," 1835, p. 63. Michigan, "Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction," 1837, p. 16.

²⁹ C. A. Goodrich, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

³⁰ New York, *op. cit.*, 1844, p. 137.

³¹ C. A. Goodrich, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

³² Worcester, "Elements of History," 1826.

rience an immense treasure of the past, and thereby enables us to enter upon the business of life with the advantage of being, in a manner, acquainted with it."

"I am anxious," said the principal of Dutchess County Academy in 1844, "to have as many as possible in the study of history, both on account of the nature of the knowledge, which they obtain from it, and also on account of the nature of the mental training derivable from it."³³ History was taught to train the "faculties" of judgment and memory. Washington Academy reported in 1844 as follows:

"The mind is composed of different faculties or powers; and among the most important of these are the memory and the reasoning faculties. The course of study pursued is designed to call into exercise and cultivate both these powers, as nearly as may be in equal degree"³⁴

Plattsburg Academy expressed the same aim in 1838:

"In our course of instruction, a thorough discipline of the mind is what we chiefly hope to effect, and * * * we believe that this can only be secured by severe study and close thinking * * *"³⁵

Not only was history calculated to train the memory and the reason. It was said to form habits of attention and precision,³⁶ to make for better pronunciation,³⁷ and to furnish food for conversation and reflection.³⁸

The advantage of the disciplinary aim, then as now, lay in its extreme elasticity. History, good or bad, long or short, difficult or simple, useful or useless, would improve the faculties and help to fill "the reservoir from which we derive and from which we draw those streams of learning which we may apply on any future or contingent emergency."

H. Conclusion

History gained its place in the curriculum of the secondary schools of the United States for a variety of reasons. It was supposed to train morals, to provide profitable ways of spending the leisure period, to inspire patriotism, to train for citizenship, and to leave the pupil with a well-trained mind. With the belief in formal discipline, there was no inconsistency in aiming for all at once, so wide was the transfer which was believed to ensue.

There was no serial development of these aims in the United States, whatever may have been the original order of development abroad. All were present

when history first began to gain its important place as a differentiated subject. With the exception of the religious aim, all are present to-day. The only change of importance from early times is the gradual decline of the religious aim, the growing differentiation of the other purposes, and the growth of the modern conception of history as a guide to social interpretation, following the influence of Herbert Spencer and the teachings of the theory of evolution.

The Ontario Historical Society held a most successful three days' conference in Ottawa during the first week in June. Mr. Clarence M. Warner, of Napanee, was elected president; Sir Edmund Walker, of Toronto, first vice-president; Miss Janet Carochan, second vice-president; Dr. C. C. James, of Toronto, treasurer; and Mr. A. F. Hunter, M.A., of Toronto, secretary. The members of the council are: Mrs. Billings, Ottawa; J. S. Carstairs, Dr. Gilmour and Dr. Fraser, Toronto; and Prof. W. L. Grant, Kingston. Two committees were also elected, one for the historic sites and monuments, and the other for commemorations.

Several important and interesting papers were read at both the afternoon and evening sessions. In the afternoon, Mr. T. W. Edwin Souter read a fine paper on "The Highway of the Ottawa," reconstructing for the imagination of the members the Ottawa valley as it was in the seventeenth century.

Miss Edith L. Marsh, of Toronto, in a paper on "County History as a Factor in Social Progress," gave an account of the times of the Indians and the pioneers.

Mr. E. H. Scammell, secretary of the Canadian Peace Centenary Association, was down for an address on the Peace Centenary, but he turned the subject into an historical review of the events leading up to the Rush-Bagot agreement of 1817 and the century of peace that has followed. He described the agreement as a model of brevity and comprehensiveness, and as 100 years ahead of its time. He suggested that in connection with the Peace Centenary it would be a fine thing to give this agreement the status of a treaty, and revise it so as to bring it up to date with present-day requirements. There could be no doubt that the two Anglo-Saxon peoples living side by side would be left to work out their own salvation in their own ways, to the benefit of themselves, their neighbors and the world at large.

In the evening, Mr. Walter S. Herrington, B.A., K.C., of Napanee, read a paper on "Pioneer Life on the Bay of Quinte," in which he gave some fine descriptive phases of pioneer life under adverse conditions and struggles resulting in successes.

Mr. W. Wilfred Campbell, LL.D., contributed a most interesting paper on "Some Oldtime Canadian Newspapers and Newspaper Writers." One of the important features of the conference on the closing day was the turning of the first sod for a monument to commemorate Champlain's discoveries.

³³ New York, *op. cit.*, 1844, p. 137.

³⁴ New York, *op. cit.*, 1839, p. 116.

³⁵ New York, *op. cit.*, 1838, p. 92.

³⁶ "We expect to form those habits of attention and precision which lay the foundation for the exercise of sound judgment in the ordinary and extraordinary affairs of life." New York, *op. cit.*, 1837, p. 97.

³⁷ "Recitations in geography and history * * * furnish the teachers with opportunities of correction and criticism in pronunciation, which are of course always improved." Farmers Hall Academy, New York, *op. cit.*, 1835, p. 54.

³⁸ C. A. Goodrich, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

The Teaching of Roman History

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I. The Archaeological History of Rome after 450 B. C.

It is necessary, it seems to me, to set down here at the very beginning the purpose and scope of this article. It is not to discourse on the archaeology alone of Rome, neither is it to cut the history of Rome on an archaeological bias, but it is to survey that history from an archaeological point of view. By a discussion of ways and means, by a claim for the value of a rounded-out presentation of the subject, and by the use of some concrete examples to show how archaeological material can be used, I shall hope to give to teachers of Roman history a justification for the kind of enthusiasm that will make them more efficient, though it deplete even more their private purse and consume more of their already crowded time.

There is no history text-book which covers the archaeological side of the history of Rome. Nor is one necessary or desirable. All the newer text-books in ancient history, in a greater or less degree, are provided with illustrations, and supplemented with special archaeological sections or chapters, which explain and illuminate the political, literary and social sides of the history of the Roman people. The text-books have as much in them as a student can well be expected to learn, but it should not be what a student learns, any more than what he gets, that should give him an intelligible and usable knowledge, which ought later to translate itself through him and make him a more intelligent and useful member of society. What the student learns comes from the text-book, what he gets comes from the teacher. A student therefore learns little and gets nothing, if he comes from a recitation and brings away nothing more about the Colosseum than that it is a big structure built in Rome at such and such a date, and was a place where many Christians were thrown to the lions. Nor has he really learned anything if he only knows that the aqueducts were things built to bring water into a city or that the Roman roads led from Rome to some place else, or that the Roman temples were built on a high foundation, and the Greek temples on a low one, or that a Vestal virgin wore fillets, or that a Roman arch had an attic.

It is incumbent upon anyone who teaches the history of Rome to know a great deal more than is in the text-book. There is, to be sure, a great difference in opportunities. A large city with museums, with buildings of classic style, with unlimited means to provide illustrative material for its schools, gives a teacher a chance to do more things than does a town or village. And on the other hand, the teacher with the minimum of absolutely necessary equipment is likely to do the more intensive work. Every teacher

should own, and use for daily preparation, not less than two text-books in addition to the one used in class, and also one good hand-book. Every teacher should subscribe for at least one magazine devoted to the general subject of history and history teaching, and for at least one illustrated magazine of classical archaeology. Twenty dollars will cover the outlay for this absolute minimum of equipment. Every school must have several wall maps, atlases, and books of illustrations. In addition to what must be had, what can be had with profit, will be found enumerated at the end of this article.

In the year 450 B. C. Rome had been a republic something more than half a century. The plebeians had just won their second great struggle with the patricians. First, soon after the foundation of the Republic they had left town and threatened to build a new city unless they could have a fair share in the government, and the compromise which brought them back into Rome was the establishment of an office to be filled by a plebeian called the tribune of the plebs, who was to have a veto on the government, reinforced by a personal sacrosanctity. Now in 450 the plebeians had been able to force the writing down of the laws by which they were bound, and that victory which gave them what we know as the Twelve Tables laid the foundations of the great structure of Roman law. In a half century Rome had seen three great revolutions, the first, the political revolution in 509 B. C., the traditional date of the expulsion of the Etruscans and the Foundation of the Republic; the second, the social revolution in 493 B. C., called the secession of the plebs; and the third, the legal revolution in 451-450 B. C., which brought about the writing down of the laws. These revolutions brought about a short respite in the plebeio-patrician strife and gave the Romans an opportunity to take stock of what they had.

The dissatisfaction they might have felt because their finest temples, the city wall, and other good constructions had been built during the Etruscan domination, was mitigated by the fact that they had driven out the Etruscans. They saw also that their own houses were now better built, since the local tufa was being displaced by two better grades of building stone, the *lapis Gabinus* and the *lapis Albanus*, brought respectively from Gabii and from the Alban Hills. What we now know as the Forum was just beginning to be a general market place. Wooden booths for business ran along two sides of this depression between the hills, games began to be held here on special occasions, and temples, those of Vesta, Saturn and Castor, already stood at the foot of the hills

facing the Forum. It must not be supposed that any of the buildings were magnificent. They were as yet small and simply built, adorned, however, with brightly painted terra-cotta ornaments and tiles. The Romans had as yet not traveled far enough afield to make invidious comparisons, for it must be remembered that at this very time Athens was in the midst of her splendid architectural accomplishments.

There was not much building done in Rome after 450 B. C., until after the close of the Second Punic War in 201, a period of two and a half centuries. The reason for this is not far to seek. The Romans were so engaged in political strife in the city between patricians and plebeians, and so busy outside the city in pushing their successive conquests of Latium, Etruria, and Samnium, and so overwhelmed with new responsibilities which came as the result of acquiring possessions outside of Italy after the Punic wars, that they had very little time for the amenities of a social life or for the enjoyment of an esthetic one. True, the city had to be rebuilt after the Gauls destroyed it about 390 B. C., but it was done hurriedly and with no specific architectural plan. A naval victory at Antium in 338 B. C. gave Rome's forum a novelty, because the speaker's platform near the Senate House was decorated with the beaks of the captured ships, and people spoke of the platform thereafter as the *Rostra*, that is to say, "The Beaks." The next naval victory of any consequence which the Romans won was in 260 B. C., a few years after the beginning of the First Punic war, and a column adorned with beaks of captured ships was erected on a pedestal which had an honorary inscription to the admiral Duilius. A copy of this inscription is one of the most valued possessions of the Conservatori Museum in Rome. A column copied after this one is one of the many fine monuments in Vienna to-day.

The year 312 B. C. is a great year in the building annals of Rome. The censor of that year, Appius Claudius, built the first paved road, and the first aqueduct, both of which were named after him, the Via Appia and the Aqua Appia. The later roads and aqueducts together with the basilicas were probably the greatest triumphs of the Roman builders' genius. A fire in 210 B. C., during the Second Punic War, made necessary the erection of many new buildings, the most of which, however, were not built until after the successful termination of the war nine years later. The new type of building introduced at this time, the model for which is generally accepted as having come from Greece, was the covered hall, the basilica, which was used more especially for legal and banking business. Two more aqueducts were built just before the beginning of the civil war period, which is best dated 133 B. C. with the elder Gracchus. But during the civil wars there was almost a cessation of building, the only piece of work of much consequence in Rome being the Tabularium or Archives building, and outside of Rome the extension of the military roads. But with Julius Cæsar a new era begins.

We have now reviewed rapidly the more important architectural work done during the Republic. Beginning with Julius Cæsar, we have not only a change

in the political government of Rome, but we find a very good stopping place for a retrospect. It will probably be a surprise to most students to be told that practically all the great Roman buildings were built after Cæsar's time, and that of those which now are standing in Rome, the only one in which he ever put foot was the Tabularium. It is true that two years before his death he did dedicate the Basilica which bore his name, but it was not finished until after his death.

What then really is there during the Republic that the teacher can bring archaeological information to bear upon? It has been said that the earliest of the Roman buildings were temples. Here is a double opportunity to be seized. With photographs and descriptions of temples it is a short distance to the point where a good teacher will have students bringing in reports of buildings, of church porches, or of doorways built in their own cities after classic style, and they will soon be differentiating between the pure Greek capitals of columns and the Roman composite style. It is then almost impossible not to take up the subject of Roman religion. And here there is a wealth of material on coins and in sculptural relief of no matter what date, for religious ceremonies change in the course of centuries hardly at all.¹ A relief from the temple of Vespasian shows all the implements used in sacrifice to the gods, and reliefs from the Altar of Peace of Augustus and others from the column of Trajan show priests at the altar using such implements. A coin of Augustus has on one side the columnar front of a temple. Sarcophagi have upon them in most detailed relief funeral processions; there are many statues of emperors and priests performing various religious rites; reliefs of the bull, the ram, and the boar, the so-called *suovetaurilia*, give an opportunity for the explanation of that solemn quinquennial expiation of the Roman people done by the censor, a formal religious act, the last of his duties. The history of Roman religion in its early local form can be illumined by the proper illustration of a Roman bronze coin with the double head of Janus on one side, by a view of the temple of Saturn as it now stands in the upper end of the Forum, by photographs of the pool of Juturna, of the Atrium Vestæ, of the ancient stele, or pillar, under the black stone. The temple of Castor and a statue of Hercules which shows Hercules strangling a lion, or a Republican denarius of Publicius, will give suggestion enough to show the influence of Greek religion upon the Roman. The temple which Julius Cæsar put up to his ancestress Venus, and the two temples built by Augustus to Mars the Avenger (avenger of the death of Julius is understood), and to Julius the God, *Divus Iulius*, and the great mausolea of Augustus and of Hadrian are enough to make very clear how the emperors came to be worshipped as gods.

¹ All the illustrations which follow, except those of coins, are to be found in the books mentioned in the Bibliography under Text-books, and also spoken of as the absolute minimum of equipment. Any teacher for five dollars can get a dozen good Roman coins that will show what is necessary.

Descriptions or pictures of the catacombs and reliefs from Christian sarcophagi, shown with illustrations of the priests of Isis and Mithras make enough material to explain the struggle of Christianity with and its triumph over the religions of the east.

In the year 312 we come to the building of the first Roman road. Even without illustrations it is not hard to show how a Roman road was built, with its great top blocks of lava tooled to an absolutely tight mortarless joint, the stones pointed somewhat to give a firm hold to the concrete in which they were set. A teacher (better fitted of course with a blackboard outline map) can teach a class provided with blank outline maps more geography with Roman roads than anything else I know. A good teacher will start a class tracing the roads as they were extended, showing the political or military necessity of each extension; he will show pictures of the lines of tombs along the roads near the cities and explain the reason for the choice of this location; he will have something interesting to tell about many of the towns through which the various roads ran, and he will stimulate the students by eliciting from them or imparting to them a knowledge of the names and importance of modern cities along the roads where ancient cities once were or were not; he will be able to tell of the rapid marches of troops along these roads, and of the system of imperial post and messengers; he can show a bronze coin of the empress Faustina's with a four-wheeled wagon on one side, or the march of the soldiers over the Danube from a relief of the column of Trajan; he can, in fact, conduct as interesting a tour of the Mediterranean countries as he is himself equipped to do so.

As for the aqueducts, no photograph of the Campagna near Rome is without them. Students will realize better the engineering skill of the Romans when, in addition to seeing the architectural beauty of the aqueducts, they learn that the Romans knew that water rose as high as its source, and that to build above ground was easier than to build below, and that the limestone deposit from the water was more easily cleaned out when the water channel was above ground. The number of aqueducts built to Rome and the amount of water brought in will help to show the increasing size of the city. A photograph of the magnificent Pont du Gard in Southern France or the Alcantara aqueduct bridge in Spain will show the kind of work that was being done out in the Roman provinces. A photograph of a stretch of the wall of Rome near the Porta Maggiore or the Porta San Lorenzo will serve to show how the arches of the aqueducts were walled up by the emperor Aurelian when he threw his wall so hurriedly around Rome in 272 A. D. Reconstructions of the great public baths in Rome will give an idea of the huge playgrounds of the people where the aqueducts discharged a great part of the water they carried.

In this way archaeological material can be used to follow out and to make more real the history of the Roman people. It is a matter for the teacher to decide when is the best time to use such material. The

first time that a Roman road or an aqueduct is mentioned may be the best time to bring out some such facts as have been suggested above. In the cases just mentioned the comparative dearth of illustrative material for the time of the Republic as compared with the time of the Empire would seem to justify the early use of these examples.

When the period of the Empire is reached new things come up for consideration. A student should by now have a fairly clear idea of the fact that Roman dominion extends pretty well over the then civilized world, and that with the change to imperial rule the simpler and sterner virtues of a Republican senate are likely to be lost in an imperial court, and that the buildings which had hitherto sufficed to house the conquerors of the world would no longer suit the tastes of him who was to rule it. Oriental luxury and grandioseness, Greek art and culture, were to dictate terms to Roman simplicity. The student has seen the Forum grow in importance; now he must see Julius Caesar change its orientation, enlarge it, and even add to it a second smaller Forum. His example was followed by Augustus, Vespasian, Nerva and Trajan, the building of whose fora must be followed with illustration and pertinent comment.

It would seem therefore better and easier, at any time a teacher chooses while the history of the Republic is under discussion in class, to take some such given line as has been given above and trace it for a long continuous period. But when the Empire is reached, that method of treatment becomes more difficult. For convenience the period of an Emperor's rule is taken usually in the histories as an entity, and the progress of the people in all lines seems to have its beginning at the imperial throne. For that reason it is a rather more satisfactory plan to take the reign of each Emperor, who was upon the throne for an appreciable space of time and show what material progress was made in those fields which can be enriched by the use of archaeological remains.

It will be hard to give too much time to the age of Augustus. Augustus was a potential power from 44 B. C. to the battle of Actium in 31 B. C., in which he whipped Antony, a real power until 23 B. C., and practically an absolute power from then until 14 A. D., making a period of approximately a half century. There is, by the way, a very good silver denarius of the year 32 B. C. stamped on one side with the flags and eagle of the nineteenth legion and on the other with a warship, above which appears the name of Antonius as one of the triumviri charged with taking care of the republic. It was a period when there was a great deal of wealth, and it was a period of reaction from a long civil war. Literature and architecture were encouraged and their advance went hand in hand with the policy of the Emperor to restore the old religion and to bring back peace and prosperity to Rome and to its dominions. In connection with the progress in literature, it will be well to speak of the libraries built in connection with the wonderful marble temple of Apollo on the Palatine hill, to show photographs of pages of a Vergil manu-

script, of the mosaic which portrays Vergil seated between Clio and Melpomene, with a book roll in his hand on which he has just begun the eighth line of the first book of the Aeneid. *Graffiti* on the walls of Pompeii which schoolboys on their way to school have scratched of lines of Vergil and other authors are also good examples for use. Of architecture during the age of Augustus there are scores of examples both in Rome and out through the Roman world. The statements made by Cassius Dio and Suetonius about Augustus finding Rome brick and leaving it marble, are of course well known. The great liberality of Augustus himself and the money spent by his friends justified Middleton in saying, "the whole city burst out, as it were, into a sudden blaze of splendour, glowing with the brilliance of richly veined marbles, poured into Rome from countless quarries in Africa, Greece, and Asia Minor." Augustus' friend, Agrippa, transformed the campus Martius and built great baths and the Pantheon, Cornificius rebuilt the temple of Diana on the Aventine Hill; Plaucus built the new temple of Saturn; Balbus a fine theatre and portico; Statilius Taurus an amphitheatre, and so on. But it was not the 82 temples built or restored by Augustus, or the scores of magnificent buildings constructed by his friends, that constituted the greatest building achievements of Augustus' time. It was the extension of military roads and the founding of colonies with splendid walls, gates and arches. The Augustan type of construction can be recognized almost at once without comparative measurements by its simple and majestic lines. When photographs of Roman buildings in Turin, Aosta, and Verona are shown, and with them a map of north Italy, one needs do no more than follow Augustus with Frothingham to give students an entirely new idea of the efficiency of Augustus. He repaired and widened the roads over the Alps and at the entrances to the three best passes he built fortified towns to control them, and then back from each fortress he established a larger city or colony as a base. In the west Susa and Colonia Iulia Augusta Taurinorum (Turin) to guard the passes over Mt. Genèvre and Mt. Cenis; in the north Augusta Praetoria (Aosta) and Eporodia (Ivrea) to command the two St. Bernard passes; and to the east Tridentum (Trent) and Colonia Augusta Verona (Verona) to guard the Brenner pass. In following up the military policy of Augustus as shown by his roads and military colonies, the teacher has an opportunity to compare the practice of naming towns after Augustus with the same practice some centuries earlier when the many Antiochs and Alexandrias showed unmistakably the influence of Antiochus and Alexander the Great. The modern towns Auch for Augusta, Aosta for Augusta Praetoria, Augst for Augusta Rauricorum, Aoste-en-Diois for Augusta Tricastinorum, Augsburg for Augusta Vindelicum, show one tendency in the choice of names, while Soissons for Augusta Suessionum, Torino or Turin for Augusta Taurinorum, and Trier for Augusta Treverorum show another. In addition to these things, a teacher has the opportunity to show

the sculptures from the Altar of Peace of Augustus, a photograph of the Mausoleum of Augustus as it now stands, and with that an illustration of the *Res gestae divi Augusti* called the Monumentum Ancyranum, a copy of the inscription put up at Augustus' order at the enclosure entrance of the mausoleum in Rome. There is also the splendid Porta Pia statue of Augustus with the wonderful cuirass, which offers material for mythological, historical and artistic discussion.

When the teacher shows photographs of, say, the theatre of Marcellus, there is then an opportunity to show or speak of the theatre in Verona which overlooked the river, the theatre at Arles in France, the two theatres in Pompeii, and so on. Professor Knapp has a finely illustrated article on the Roman theatre which is to appear in the next number of *Art and Archaeology*.

One may pass more rapidly over the reigns of Tiberius, Claudius and Nero, although one must say that Tiberius was a good and careful builder, that Claudius constructed two new aqueducts and that Nero made himself notorious with his Golden House. There is a denarius which has a good likeness of Claudius on one side and a representation of a Roman camp on the other. But when we come to Vespasian, a new era of building must be noted. It will be readily enough understood why certain Emperors, Vespasian and Sept. Severus for example, were such great builders, if it be stated that they, as did others, came to the throne just after a great fire and there was necessity to rebuild. Students will realize as never before the popularity of the Flavian Emperors, Vespasian and his two sons Titus and Domitian, when they find that hard-headed Vespasian turned a great part of what was the private house and gardens of Nero back to the people. The baths of Titus were built on the substructures of part of the Golden House, and the Colosseum was built around a lake in Nero's garden. Few students know that the Colosseum was called the Amphitheatrum Flavium, and that the spelling Colosseum, not Coliseum, is the better, the name coming from the nearness of the building to the colossal statue of Nero, changed after his death to a statue of the sun. It may also be deemed worth while, in speaking of Vespasian, who was a Sabine of humble birth, and not a Roman, to institute a comparison between him and Pisistratus and Servius Tullius. The building activity of all three was due to a desire to create a local following by giving them work to do, which at the same time would redound to the honor and glory of the city.

The campaign of Vespasian and Titus against Jerusalem will be best illustrated by the triumphal arch to Titus erected on the ridge at the upper end of the Roman Forum. Inside the arch are those two fine reliefs, one of which shows the Emperor in his triumphal chariot in the procession, the other that part of the spoils of the Temple among which the gold seven branched candlestick appears, giving us practically a contemporaneous photograph. It would be well for the teacher to know that the candlestick

was carried to Africa in the fifth century A. D. and in the sixth century to Constantinople, after which time it is not heard of again. The use of the arch of Titus as an illustration of an imperial triumph gives as good an opportunity as any other to discuss the purpose and provenience of arches in general. In Rome, in addition to the arch just mentioned, there are the arches of Septimius Severus and of Constantine to show, the arch of Trajan at Beneventum, the arches at Ancona and Verona, at Orange in France, and several in Africa and Asia. Frothingham gives a complete list of them in the *American Journal of Archaeology*. Nearly all the arches are adorned with reliefs, most of which have not only great artistic but great historical value. Mrs. Strong's book on Roman Sculpture is of value here. It will add to the interest if the teacher will speak of the Arc de Triomphe in Paris, the Brandenburg gate in Berlin, the arch in Washington Square, New York, and tell why they were erected, and then call attention to the use of temporary arches at all expositions and fairs, as at Buffalo, Chicago, and so on.

When the period of the Emperor Hadrian is under discussion, reference to his accomplishments as a builder can not be avoided. His great villa near Tibur (Tivoli) offers the opportunity to speak of the tendency which came in the time of the empire for the wealthy to build magnificent country or sea-side places. These can be taken up with a discussion of the mass of imperial dwellings on the Palatine hill and all treated together, both as matters of architectural construction and as signs of increasing wealth and luxury. That teacher who has had a trip abroad and has brought back a dozen pieces or more of building material, tufa, pozzolana, lava, peperino, travertine, a stamped brick, a few pieces of wall marble, and plaster wall painting, can build up before a class the history of Roman building in a way that will be as unforgettable as it has been to scores of American teachers who have listened to the late Professor Mau as he took a score of fragments in the Forum of Pompeii, and built up the whole Forum as it was before the eruption of Vesuvius.

It is the best time to treat the whole matter of Roman baths when the Emperors Caracalla and Diocletian are reached. Photographs of the baths themselves as they now are, with restorations, are in all the books mentioned as indispensable, strigils or photographs of them are to be shown, a photograph of the statue called the Apoxyomenos or Scraper will be of much interest, and the comparison of the baths to a finely appointed city playground, mentioning the additional features belonging to the baths, will be enlightening.

Another thing of interest at some point will be to explain how all the cities of the Roman empire modelled themselves in the matter of a Forum with its temples, markets, arches, etc., after Rome. The buried cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum offer illustrations of every kind, and the new excavations at Ostia, below Rome on the Tiber, are of great interest. The reasons for excavations, the way they are carried

on, the value of the things found, all these are to be used at the proper time. A current illustrated archaeological magazine is the only way to have this new material at hand.

Two fields there are yet which have only been touched upon here and there, Roman Life and Roman Art. In the former, many of the things already spoken of can be used again in a different way. Let us consider one concrete example, that of a piece of the relief from Trajan's column called the "Offering at the Danube Bridge." There is first of all historical material here, in that it shows the extension of Roman power. There is architecture in the bridge itself; there is military information in the flags of the legions and in the equipment of the soldiers; there is information of religious significance in the sacrifice on the altar; there is information about Roman dress, in the many different ways of wearing the toga and tunic; there is a vast deal of human interest in the relief; and there is finally a great artistic value in it, showing how sculpture in relief was handled, how background and foreground were differentiated, how Roman art gave real, not ideal, portraits of people, and how this type of relief was made intentionally as a historical document. Almost any relief of the many which appear in all the histories and handbooks can be used in this way, and the same relief can be used many times to illustrate the subject of the moment.

The subject of Roman life lends itself admirably to archaeological illustration. As history lessons go on from day to day there are occasions constantly arising where a brief explanation or the passing of a photograph, or a coin, will clear up or illumine a point. Marriage and its attendant ceremonies can be compared with the ceremonies of to-day by the use of reliefs and vase and wall paintings. The care and education of children, their toys and their games can be illustrated in the same way from scores of photographs which are in the books mentioned above. The house and its furniture offers a subject of great interest, and the illustrations available are very numerous. Not only are there many good illustrations and reconstructions of Roman houses, but the museums of Europe and the United States are full of household utensils and furniture, photographs of all sorts of which are available. Lamps, candelabra, stoves, hot water heaters, cooking utensils of all sorts, beds and chairs, all the articles of household use, few it is true when compared with those in houses of to-day, are to be found in plenty of illustrations. The restoration of an atrium, a peristyle and a dining-room of a Roman house will give material for much discussion. A photograph of one of the Pompeian bake shops with a stove, an oven, and mills near by, a restoration of a store or shop, and a photograph of the case in the Museum of Naples which has in it several petrified loaves of bread which came from a Pompeian shop, and one has material for an explanation of one kind of business in a Roman town. Add to that a photograph of the baker's tomb just outside of the Porta Maggiore at Rome, and the reliefs upon it of

the grinding of grain, making dough, baking, weighing and selling loaves, and translate the amusing inscription to a class, and it will be a strange class that is not very much interested and instructed at the same time.

There is besides in connection with the house the subject of dress and personal ornaments, of food and meals, and many of the illustrations already mentioned can be used in explanation of these subjects. The various garments worn, the way they were put on and fastened, the shoes, the personal ornaments worn by the men and women, these all, when shown and compared with things used in the middle ages and in modern times, have a constant and increasing interest. The subject of the games and amusements of the Romans, from the tossing of a bronze coin, with a ship's prow on one side and the head of a deity on the other, which toss was called "Heads or Ships" by a Roman, just as we would say "Heads or Tails" to chariot racing and gladiatorial games in the big circuses, has in it great opportunities. There are the buildings to be spoken of and shown, theatre tickets, gladiators in their different kinds of armor, mosaics and pictures of the wild beasts brought from all parts of the world to entertain the Roman populace in bloody sports. There are photographs of the barriers, the Roman style of starting line, of the chariots and horses, of the decorated spina or backbone down the center of a circus around which the horses ran, and on which were the balls and dolphins which told the racers the number of laps covered or still to be run.

Mention must be made of the relief of the Haterii which shows a temple and a derrick with its ropes and pulleys, photographs of the election notices on the walls at Pompeii, a wall painting of a naval battle, or the widely-known paintings of the little cupids in the dining-room of the house of the Vettii at Pompeii, the scores of reliefs and paintings that illustrate travel and the making and selling of books, burial places and funeral ceremonies, these make material enough for the explanation and illumination of history.

Roman Art is still to be mentioned. Here the teacher will find that the wider his reading has been on Greek, medieval and modern art, so much the more surely and briefly he can show the quality and the strength of Roman art. In exhibiting a page or a series of portraits of the Roman Emperors, it will be clear at once that one has a faithful reproduction of the Emperors, and not an idealized one, and it will be clear to a class also from a series such as this that the Roman Emperors became more and more gross and cruel. Portraits are best studied in the reproductions of Roman coins.

The two fields in which Roman art deserves much study and attention are wall painting and mosaic work, and sculptural relief historical in character. The wall paintings of Rome are not so very numerous, but the painting on the vaults of the Golden House of Nero are very fine, and they served as models to painters of the Renaissance. There are, too, some very fine paintings from tombs on the Latin Way.

But Pompeii has given the most of the wall paintings to us, and these as now to be seen, some still in Pompeii, but most of them in the Naples Museum, are well worth study, for they offer many helps to history besides the history of art. Mosaics, too, are plenty enough. The finest Roman mosaic is in Palestine, the ancient Praeneste, and portrays what seems to be a trip up the Nile. The mosaics in the Roman museums from the baths are also fine, while the many mosaics found in Germany, France and Africa help to fill many scores of local museums. The famous Alexander mosaic now in Naples is to be found in all illustrated handbooks.

The use that can be made of the historical relief has already been mentioned above in several connections. There are hundreds of these reliefs, the two longest being the circular bands that run around the two columns of Trajan and M. Aurelius in Rome. These splendid columns have been preserved to us, it seems quite sure, by the fact that statues of St. Peter and St. Paul were put on top of them to take the place of the Roman Emperors. All the Roman arches are covered with relief work both inside and out, and on many of them there is work of great artistic worth. The many sarcophagi, both Roman and Christian, have scenes of various kinds carved on them in low and high relief. There is, too, a great deal of delicate relief work on terra-cottas.

These are examples of an archaeological sort which ought to be of great use to any teacher of classic history. Every phase of political, social, economic, religious and military history can be enlivened, can be more easily explained, and can be more efficiently taught, if the great stores of archaeological material be drawn upon. And there is no teacher who will not bend every effort to turn to good account everything that will in any way round out his or her teaching, and make it more efficient and interesting and more potential to increase the usefulness, the intelligence and the taste of the rising generation.

A BIBLIOGRAPHY WITH SUGGESTIONS AND INFORMATION

This bibliography makes no pretense of being a complete one, nor has that been the primary desideratum in putting one here. In fact, very few of the books published in foreign languages have been mentioned at all, although it must be admitted that many of the best illustrated works and most of the large basic editions are in German, French, and Italian. Those foreign books which have been mentioned below are especially valuable, if for nothing else than their illustrations, which are intelligible enough whether one knows the language of the book or not in which they appear. The books, the titles of which are cited below, are arranged under fairly well differentiated classifications, and at the beginning of each division a few words will be found which will give the idea of the writer of this article as to values. That means that a book absolutely necessary will be so characterized, it being quite to be understood, however, that this does not mean that such a book is all that is necessary, or desirable, or that it is intrinsically the best book. Often the more usable book is not the best book.

I. TEXT-BOOKS

Of these seven American text-books in ancient history, a teacher should own two or three in addition to the classroom text-book. The Jones' Companion is also an absolute

essential, for although it is an English examination cram book, it has good material and many fine illustrations, from some of which examples given above have been drawn.

Goodspeed, G. S. "A History of the Ancient World." Revised by Ferguson and Chadwick (C. Scribner's Sons, 1912).

Morey, W. C. "Outlines of Ancient History" (American Book Company, 1906).

Myers, P. V. N. "Ancient History" (Ginn & Co., 1904).

Webster, H. "Ancient History" (D. C. Heath & Co., 1913).

West, W. M. "The Ancient World" (Allyn & Bacon, 1913).

Westermann, W. L. "The Story of the Ancient Nations" (D. Appleton & Co., 1912).

Wolfson, A. M. "Essentials in Ancient History" (American Book Company, 1902).

Jones, H. S. "Companion to Roman History" (Oxford Press, 1912).

II. ATLASES

It will be impossible to go wrong in getting any of the atlases mentioned. One of them, however, the Reich, is devoted almost entirely to military movements.

"Atlas of Ancient and Classical Geography" (Dutton & Co., in Everyman's Library).

Kiepert, H. "Atlas Antiquus" (Reimer, Berlin).

Lord, J. K. "Atlas of the Geography and History of the Ancient World" (B. H. Sanborn & Co., 1902).

"Murray's Classical Atlas." Edited by G. B. Grundy (Murray, London, 1904).

Putzger, F. W. "Historischer Schul-Atlas" (Stechert, 1907).

Reich, E. "Atlas Antiquus" (Macmillan, 1908).

Shepherd, W. R. "Historical Atlas" (Holt, 1911).

III. CHARTS

Although fairly expensive, no school should be without the Cybulski charts. They are invaluable for purposes of illustration.

Cybulski, S. "Tabulae, quibus antiquitates Graecae et Romanae illustrantur" (Koehler, Leipzig, 1901).

Gall und Rebhann. "Wandtafeln zur Veranschaulichung des Lebens der Griechen und Römer" (Pichler's Witwe und Sohn, Leipzig).

MacCoun. "Historical Geography Charts of Europe, 'Ancient and Classic Periods'" (Silver, Burdett & Co., 1894).

IV. MAPS

There is little to choose between the Kiepert and Johnston maps, but the former has the Huelsen and Richter maps, which no school should be without. The teacher can well afford to buy the Murray set.

W. & A. K. Johnston. "Classical Geography Series, especially 'Orbis Romanus,' 'Asia Minor Antiqua,' 'Caesar de Bello Gallico,' 'Italia Antiqua'" (A. J. Nystrom & Co.).

Kiepert. "Physical Series Wall Maps."

Sydow-Habernicht. "Physical Series Wall Maps."

Stanford. "New Orographical Series Wall Maps; Frowde, Oxford Rainfall and Oxford Vegetation Series Wall Maps; Spruner-Bretschneider, Historical Series Wall Maps I and II; Kiepert, Classical Series Wall Maps, especially 'Ancient Italy,' 'Ancient Latium,' 'Ancient Gaul,' 'Roman Empire;'" Huelsen, "Ancient Rome; Kiepert and Huelsen. Maps of the City of Ancient Rome; Richter. Roman Forum (Rand McNally & Co.).

Leadbetter, E. "Outlines and Studies" to accompany Myers' Ancient History (Ginn & Co., 1905).

McKinley Publishing Co. Wall, Desk, Skeleton, and Outline Maps and Atlases.

Murray's Handy Classical Maps. Edited by G. B. Grundy (Murray, London). Fine orographical maps, backed with cloth, folded in small book form.

V. PERIODICALS

THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE and the new non-technical illustrated publication of the Archaeological Institute of America, "Art and Archaeology" are the two periodicals which a teacher must have first of all. "Records of the Past" and the "Numismatic Circular" are next most usable.

"American Journal of Archaeology" (Macmillan).

"Art and Archaeology" (Archaeological Institute of America, The Octagon, Washington, D. C.).

"Art and Progress" (Art and Progress, N. Y.).

"The Classical Weekly" (Columbia University Press).

"The Classical Journal" (University of Chicago Press).

HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE (McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia).

"Mentor" (Mentor Association, New York).

"Museum of Fine Arts Bulletin" (Boston).

"The Museum Journal" (Museum of the University of Pennsylvania).

"National Geographic Magazine" (National Geographic Society, Washington, D. C.).

"Numismatic Circular" (Spink & Sons, London).

"Records of the Past" (Records of the Past Exploration Society, Washington, D. C.).

VI. DICTIONARIES, ENCYCLOPEDIAS AND HAND BOOKS

"A Companion to Latin Studies," by Sandys, is, after a teacher's own class text, the one most valuable and necessary book to have. It is the best single book that can be had, and is the chief of the books mentioned above in the text as the absolute necessary minimum equipment. This book the teacher must own. The school should have a "Harper's Dictionary."

Burn, R. "Old Rome, a Hand book to the Ruins of the City and the Campagna" (G. Bell & Sons, London, 1880).

Gayley, C. M. "The Classic Myths in English Literature and in Art" (Ginn & Co., 1911).

Nissen, H. "Italische Landeskunde" (Weidmann, Berlin, 1883 and 1902, 2 vols.).

Peck, H. T. "Harper's Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities" (American Book Co., 1897).

Sandys, J. E. "A Companion to Latin Studies" (Cambridge Press and G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1910).

Tozer, H. F. "Classical Geography" (American Book Co.).

VII. ILLUSTRATIONS

Illustrations are at the same time the most expensive and the most important part of the teacher's equipment. Whether one uses photographs or slides depends on local conditions, and both work beautifully together. I have made no mention of casts or models of antiques themselves, although it must be evident that teachers with such apparatus, or with access to them, have an advantage over others.

For full list of American and foreign dealers in illustrative materials, see HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, June, 1913 (Vol. IV, 158-168).

1. PHOTOGRAPHS

Ballance, G. R. (San Mamette, Lago di Lugano, Italy). The most artistic photographs which can be bought, and very cheap.

"Catalogue of the Collection of Historical Material at Simmons College," as prepared by the New England Teachers' Association (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1912).

- "Elson Prints" (Elson Art Publishing Co., Boston).
 "Perry Pictures" (Perry Pictures Co., Malden, Mass.).
 Thompson Bros., Syracuse, N. Y.
 "University Prints" (Bureau of University Travel, Boston).
 Unmounted photographs, 8 x 10 inches, published by various foreign firms.

2. LANTERN SLIDES

- Cooley, A. S., Auburndale, Mass.
 Lees, J. T., University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.
 Records of the Past Exploration Society, Washington, D. C.
 Swain, Jos. Prin., Bay City, Mich.
 Troy, J. P., Ithaca, N. Y. (Morse Hall).

3. STEREOSCOPIC VIEWS

- Underwood and Underwood, New York, with maps and hand books.

4. PHOTOGRAPHIC REPRODUCTIONS IN BOOK FORM, DRAWINGS, PLATES, ETC.

- "Collezione di Monografie Illustrate; Italia Artistica" (Istituto Italiano d'Arti Grafiche, Bergamo). Over 50 beautifully illustrated and cheap monographs.
 Gusman, P. "L'Art Décoratif de Rome" [Morel (Eggimann), Paris, 1908]. Splendid plates and descriptions.
 Hill, G. F. "Illustrations of School Classics" (Macmillan, 1903).
 "Monumenta Pompeiana" (Hedeler, Leipzig). A splendid but expensive series of more than 100 colored drawings.
 Muzik und Perschinka. "Kunst und Leben im Altertum" (Freytag, Leipzig, 1909).
 Piranesi, G. B. "Roman Architecture, Sculpture, and Ornament, Selected Examples from Piranesi's Rome Publication in 1756" (Spon, London, 1900).
 A catalogue of Prints of Views in Rome and Paestum by G. B. Piranesi (Batsford, London).
 Pronti, D. "100 Vedutine Antiche della Città di Roma" (Rome, 1795).
 Rossini, "Le Antichità dei contorni di Roma ossia le più famose città del Lazio" (Rome, 1826). The next best plates after Piranesi.
 Schreiber, T. "Atlas of Classical Antiquities" (Macmillan, 1895). Invaluable.
 Stettiner, P. "Roma nei suoi Monumenti" (Roma, 1911). Excellent.
 Stobart, J. C. "The Grandeur that was Rome; a Survey of Roman Culture and Civilization" (Lippincott, 1912).
 Winter, F. "Kunstgeschichte in Bildern" (Seemann, Leipzig, 1900).

VIII. GUIDE BOOKS AND BOOKS OF TRAVEL

- Grant Allen's "Historical Guides," Classical Rome, Florence, Venice, The Cities of Northern Italy, The Umbrian Towns, Christian Rome, Smaller Tuscan Towns (A. Wessels Co.).
 Allinson, C. E. "Roads from Rome" (Macmillan, 1913).
 Baedeker's Guides. The best hand books.
 Dennie, "Rome of To-day and Yesterday" (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1898).
 Elliott, F. "Diary of an Idle Woman in Italy" (Tauchnitz Edition).
 Forman, H. J. "The Ideal Italian Tour" (Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1911).
 Seymour, F. H. "Up Hill and Down Dale in Ancient Etruria" (D. Appleton & Co., 1910).

IX. HISTORICAL FICTION

A teacher must first have read any historical romance which is to be used. Then if students can be brought to ask for such books, and thus made to read them as a pleas-

ure rather than a duty, much is to be gained from historical fiction. But the overdrawn parts of a romance must be explained or minimized by the teacher.

- Baker, E. A. "A Guide to Historical Fiction" (Macmillan, 1914).
 Bacheller, I. "Vergilius: A Tale of the Coming of Christ" (Harpers).
 Baring-Gould, S. "Domitia." A story of the wife of Domitian (Stokes).
 Becker, W. A. "Gallus: or, Roman Scenes of the Times of Augustus" (Longmans, Green & Co.).
 Bulwer-Lytton, E. "The Last Days of Pompeii" (Dutton).
 Champney, E. W. "Romance of Imperial Rome" (G. P. Putnam's Sons).
 Church, A. J. "The Burning of Rome: A Story of Nero's Days" (Macmillan).
 Church, A. J. "Lords of the World: A Tale of the Fall of Carthage and Corinth" (C. Scribner's Sons).
 Church, A. J. "Roman Life in the Days of Cicero" (Macmillan).
 Church, A. J. "Two Thousand Years Ago; or, The Adventures of a Roman Boy." A story of the time of Spartacus the gladiator (Dodd and Mead).
 Collins, W. "Antonina; or, The Fall of Rome." Alaric and Honorius (Harpers).
 Cramp, W. S. "Psyche." A romance of the time of Tiberius (Little & Brown).
 Dahn, F. "A Captive of the Roman Eagles." Romans and Alemanni near Lake Constance (McClurg).
 Dahn, F. "Felicitas," Rome of 476 A. D. (McClurg).
 Davis, W. S. "A Friend of Caesar: A Tale of the Fall of the Roman Republic" (Macmillan).
 Doyle, Sir A. C. "The Last Galley." Several short tales of Roman times (Doubleday, Page & Co.).
 Eckstein, E. "The Chaldean Magician: an Adventure in Rome in the Reign of Diocletian" (Gottsberger).
 Eckstein, E. "Nero" (Gottsberger).
 Eckstein, E. "Quintus Claudius: A Romance of Imperial Rome" (Gottsberger).
 Eckstein, E. "Prusias." A story of the Mithradatic war (Gottsberger).
 Elliott, F. "Pictures of Old Rome" (Tauchnitz Edition).
 Farrar, F. W. "Darkness and Dawn." Paganism versus Christianity in the time of Nero (Longmans, Green & Co.).
 Flaubert, G. "Salambo." A story of the sister of Hannibal. Translated from the French by Ragozin, Z. A. (G. P. Putnam's Sons).
 Gissing, G. "Veranilda." A story of the Gothic invasion (Constable, London).
 Gould, S. B. "Perpetua." Christian Persecution at Nîmes (Dutton).
 Graham, J. W. "Neaera: A Tale of Ancient Rome." In the time of Tiberius (Macmillan).
 Hobbs, R. R. "The Court of Pilate: A Story of Jerusalem in the Days of Christ (Fenno).
 James, G. R. P. "Attila" (Dutton).
 Kingsley, C. "Hypatia." A story laid in Alexandria, 391 A. D. (Macmillan).
 Kingsley, F. M. "Titus, a Comrade of the Cross" (Altemus).
 Kipling, R. "Puck of Pook's Hill." Romans in Britain (Doubleday, Page & Co.).
 Lockhart, J. G. "Valerius." A story of the visit of a Briton to Rome in the time of Trajan (Blackwood).
 Marshall, E. "No. XIII: or, The Story of the Lost Vestal" (Tauchnitz Edition).
 Merezhkowski, D. "The Death of the Gods." A story of the time of Julian, so-called the Apostate (G. P. Putnam's Sons).

- Osborne, D. "The Lion's Brood." A story of the second Punic War (Doubleday, Page & Co.).
- Pater, W. "Marius the Epicurean." The mental and moral growth of a Roman thinker (Macmillan).
- Pottinger, Sir H. "Blue and Green: A Romance of Old Constantinople." A story of factional conflict in the time of Justinian (Chapman, London).
- Sienkiewicz, H. "Quo Vadis: a Narrative of the Time of Nero" (Little & Brown).
- Wallace, L. "Ben Hur: or, The Days of the Messiah" (Harpers).
- Ware, W. "Zenobia: or, The Fall of Palmyra." Laid in the time of Aurelian (Burt).
- Ware, W. "Aurelian: or, Rome in the Third Century" (Burt).
- Ware, W. "Julian: or, Scenes in Judaea" (Estes).
- Westbury, H. "Acte." Rome in the time of Nero (Bentley, London; and Macmillan).
- Whyte-Melville, G. J. "The Gladiators: a Tale of Rome and Judaea" (Longmans, Green & Co.).
- Wiseman, Cardinal N. "Fabiola: or, The Church in the Catacombs" (Benziger Bros.).

X. GENERAL ARCHAEOLOGY

The necessary book here and one which no teacher can be without, although the text is in German, is "Die Hellenistisch-Roemische Kultur," by Baumgarten, Poland and Wagner. The illustrations in this work are splendid, and the cost of the book is not great. Fairly expensive, but of entrancing interest and scholarly value, are all of Lanciani's books, and any teacher who will get them in the school library or his personal library will have a gold mine. The book on Pompeii by Mau, translated and enlarged by Professor Kelsey, is also a *sine qua non* for the teacher.

- Ashby, T. "Recent Excavations in Rome" (Classical Review from 1899, *passim*).
- St. Clair Baddeley. "Recent Discoveries in the Forum, 1898-1904" (Macmillan, 1904).
- Baddeley and Gordon. "Rome and Its Story" (Macmillan, 1904). Illustrations in color.
- Barker, E. R. "Buried Herculaneum" (A. & C. Black, London, 1908).
- Baumgarten, Poland, und Wagner. "Die Hellenistisch-Roemische Kultur" (Teubner, Leipzig, 1913).
- Burton-Brown. "Recent Excavations in the Roman Forum, 1898-1904" (Murray, London, 1904).
- Crawford, M. "Southern Italy and Sicily and the Rulers of the South" (Macmillan, 1905).
- Kiepert et Huelsen. "Formae Urbis Romae Antiquae. Aecedit Nomenclator Topographicus" (Reimer, Berlin, 1912).
- Lanciani, R. "Ancient Rome in the Light of Recent Discoveries" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1889).
- Lanciani, R. "The Destruction of Ancient Rome" (Macmillan, 1899).
- Lanciana, R. "New Tales of Old Rome" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1901).
- Lanciani, R. "Pagan and Christian Rome" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1893).
- Lanciani, R. "The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1897). Other books of Lanciani's under Sculpture and Art and Topography.
- Mackenzie, W. M. Illustrations by Pisa. "Pompeii" (A. and C. Black, London, 1910).
- Mau-Kelsey. "Pompeii: Its Life and Art" (Macmillan, 1902).
- Middleton, J. H. "The Remains of Ancient Rome" (A. & C. Black, London, 1892, 2 vols.).

- Molesworth, B. "Pompeii as it was and as it is" (Skeelington & Son, London, 1904).
- Rodocanachi, E. "The Roman Capitol," translated by F. Lawton (Heinemann, London, 1906).
- Roux, A. "Herculaneum et Pompéi" (Paris, 1872, 8 vols.).
- Tucker and Malleson. Illustrations painted by A. Pisa. "Rome" (A. & C. Black, London, 1905).
- Waldstein and Shoobridge. "Herculaneum, Past, Present and Future" (Macmillan, 1908).
- Wilkins, A. S. "Roman Antiquities" (D. Appleton & Co., 1878).

XI. ARCHITECTURE, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE

- Anderson and Spiers. "The Architecture of Greece and Rome" (C. Scribner's Sons, 1908).
- von Behr, H. "Die Porta Nigra in Trier" (Lintz, Trier, 1909).
- Durm, J. "Die Baukunst der Roemer," in his "Handbuch der Architektur" (Kroener, Stuttgart, 1905).
- Frothingham, A. L. "The Monuments of Christian Rome" (Macmillan, 1908).
- Inama, V. "Il Teatro Antico Greco e Romano" (Hoepli, Milano, 1910).
- Lovell, I. "Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum" (Macmillan, 1902).
- Poggiani, L. "L'Antico Teatro di Verona" (Baroni, Verona, 1908). Fine series of sepia prints with text.
- Porter, M. W. "What Rome was Built With" (Frowde, 1907).
- Statham, H. H. "A Short Critical History of Architecture" (Batsford, London, 1912).
- Van Deman, E. B. "The Atrium Vestae" (Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1909). Splendid photographs and plates of architectural drawings. Best obtainable monograph on a single building.

XII. LIFE AND MANNERS

The book of Johnston is the first book for the teacher to get. Friedlaender's four volume work is the most important for the library. Guhl and Koner is almost a necessity. Abbott, Fowler, and Dill are the next most important. The British Museum guide and Preston and Dodge are cheap and valuable.

- Abbott, F. F. "The Common People of Ancient Rome: Studies of Roman Life and Literature" (C. Scribner's Sons, 1911).
- Abbott, F. F. "Society and Politics in Ancient Rome: Essays and Sketches" (C. Scribner's Sons, 1909).
- "A Guide to the Exhibition Illustrating Greek and Roman Life" (British Museum Publication, 1908).
- Bluemner, H. "Die Roemischen Privat-altertuemer" (Beck, Munich, 1911). One of the volumes (IV, 2, 2) of the Mueller Handbuch.
- Carter, J. B. "The Religion of Numa and Other Essays on the Religion of Ancient Rome" (Macmillan, 1906).
- Davis, W. S. "The Influence of Wealth in Imperial Rome" (Macmillan, 1910).
- Dill, S. "Roman Society in the last Century of the Western Empire" (Macmillan, 1898).
- Dill, S. "Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius" (Macmillan, 1905).
- Donaldson, J. "Woman: Her Position and Influence in Ancient Greece and Rome, and Among the Early Christians" (Longmans, Green & Co., 1907).
- Fowler, W. W. "The Roman Festivals of the Period of the Republic" (Macmillan, 1899).
- Fowler, W. W. "Social Life at Rome in the Age of Cicero" (Macmillan, 1909).

- Friedlaender, L. "Roman Life and Manners Under the Early Empire," translated by Gough (Dutton & Co., 1913, 4 vols.).
- Friedlaender, L. "Town Life in Ancient Italy," translated by W. E. Waters (B. H. Sanborn & Co., 1902).
- Guhl and Koner. "Life of the Greeks and Romans" (Chatto and Windus, London, 1889).
- Herbermann, C. G. "Business Life in Ancient Rome" (American Book Company, 1880).
- Inge, W. R. "Society in Rome Under the Caesars" (C. Scribner's Sons, 1888).
- Johnston, H. W. "The Private Life of the Romans" (Scott, Foresman & Co., 1903).
- Northcote and Brownlow. "Roma Sotterranea, or, An Account of the Roman Catacombs" (Longmans, Green & Co., 1879, 2 vols.).
- Oliver, E. H. "Roman Economic Conditions to the Close of the Republic" (Univ. of Toronto Library, 1907).
- Pellison, M. "Roman Life in Pliny's Time," translated by Maud Wilkinson (Jacobs, 1897).
- Preston and Dodge. "The Private Life of the Romans" (B. H. Sanborn & Co., 1893).
- Ramsay, W. M. "The Church in the Roman Empire Before A. D. 170" (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1893).
- Ransom, C. L. "Studies in Ancient Furniture; Couches and Beds of the Greeks, Etruscans, and Romans" (University of Chicago Press, 1905).
- Thomas, E. "Roman Life Under the Caesars" (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1899).
- Tucker, T. G. "Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul" (Macmillan, 1910).

XIII. NUMISMATICS

- Hill, G. F. "Historical Roman Coins, from the Earliest Times to The Reign of Augustus" (Constable & Co., London, 1909).
- Ridgeway, W. "Origin of Metallic Currency and Weight Standards" (Cambridge Press, England, 1892).
- Stevenson, Smith and Madden. "A Dictionary of Roman Coins, Republican and Imperial" (G. Bell & Sons, London, 1889).

XIV. SCULPTURE AND ART

- Mrs. Strong's "Roman Sculpture" is the first book to get under this head. Reinach's "Apollo" is an inexpensive little book that no one should be without, and von Mach's plates are very valuable for use in class.
- Birt, T. "Roemische Charakterkoepfe" (Quelle und Meyer, Leipzig, 1913).
- Fürtwängler, A. "Die Antiken Gemmen" (Giesecke & Devrient, Leipzig, 1900).
- Hekler, A. "Die Bildniskunst der Griechen und Roemer" (Hoffmann, Stuttgart, 1912).
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How to Begin Work in Ancient History

BY KATE MARGARET MONRO, MORRIS HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY

Professor McMurtry in his "Method of the Recitation" states that "Interest is necessary if knowledge is to be really digested and to become a source of power." Most modern authorities in education agree with this statement and realize that without interest the child fails to mull over the facts presented to him. Thus he does not remember them or make them a part of himself. Instead, he usually develops an aversion for the subject which interferes with home study and prevents that delight which would lead him to follow it when school days are over.

In view of these considerations, surely every teacher must admit that one of the most important aims of her profession is to arouse and foster a deep and permanent interest. To accomplish this, the first lessons of the year are the crucial ones. The pupils must then be brought into sympathy with the subject. This is particularly necessary in Ancient History; for in this age when most boys and girls appreciate the value of the practical rather than of the cultural subjects, they must be patiently guided to the realization that the worth of a study to them cannot be judged by the amount of money they may later make from their knowledge of it.

To convince a class of the importance of Ancient History, let them make a list of reasons for studying it. When boys and girls begin to consider the joys that are added to travel and to reading, the treasures of art museum appreciated only by the student of the past, the similarity between many ancient and modern institutions, the pleasures of becoming acquainted with the early heroes, and the broadened outlook derived from all these new ideas, these boys and girls will no longer declare that Ancient History is a bore. Indeed, before the first week of school is over, most of them will be anxious to begin this study which offers so many possibilities.

Before opening the text-books, however, the teacher must prepare for the assimilation of the new ideas by the old. An excellent way to do this is to recall what the pupil knows of the geography of the East, of the life of any savage or half-civilized peoples, and other kindred subjects about which most high school freshmen have a surprising fund of information. After several recitations devoted to reviving his previous knowledge, the child begins the study with an appreciating mass ready to welcome the new ideas.

So much preparation may seem like a waste of time, but in reality it proves a time-saver, as the child, instead of being driven to read the required lesson, is eager to learn and to advance rapidly.

After a class is started in text-book work, the teacher must guard against devoting the whole recitation period to the lesson assigned. In history more than in any other subject, 10, or even 15 minutes, should be devoted to preparing for the advance lesson.

Unless this is done, the pupil will loathe the sight of his text-book when the time comes for study at home. For instance, Greek colonization, a subject deadly dull to most children, may be made vital and interesting by a careful preparation of the mind to receive the new material. Before the text is read, let the class discuss why the Greeks wished to leave such an attractive country as their own and what particular inducements were offered by distant regions. Then let the teacher arouse the imagination of the pupils by picturing a band of Greeks starting from the home city, or ask the class to write conversations that might have taken place among the sailors or among the countrymen left behind. Discuss with maps the journeys from the mother-cities to those new lands of mystery, where such centers as Byzantium, Syracuse, Cumae, and Tarentum, founded by these daring Helenes, were to influence the civilization of the world.

After some such preparation as this, the child is ready for the material which otherwise would have been too new to have appealed to him. For fear, however, that he depend too much upon gleanings received in class, require frequent outlines either from his text-book or from a good reference work. Also, take time for special oral or written topics on themes of general interest. Thus opportunity will be given for self-activity, that worthy hobby of the modern educator.

An unusually good subject for these special reports is that of Greek myths; for even to-day many texts deal with these charming stories in some such way as the following:

"The last and greatest enterprise of the heroic age was the siege of Troy. The outline of the story is that Paris, son of Priam, king of Troy, abused the hospitality of Menelaus, king of Sparta, by carrying off his wife, Helen, the most beautiful woman of the age. At the call of Menelaus all the Grecian princes assembled in arms, elected his brother Agamemnon leader of the expedition, and sailed across the Aegean to recover the faithless fair one. Nearly all Asia Minor was leagued with Troy, and the most valiant Trojan leader was Hector, son of Priam. It was not till the tenth year that Troy yielded." Such an account will not fire a child's enthusiasm nor induce him to read and reread these tales until they become for him a lasting treasure, a delightful interpreter of art and literature. But introduce him to Hawthorne's "Wonder Book," to Gayley's "Classic Myths," to Bulfinch's "Age of Fable." No longer will he be the driven, unfeeling sluggard with one eye on his book and all his other senses alive to every distraction. For who could resist Hawthorne's fascinating stories of Jason's thrilling adventures, of Proserpina's mysterious disappearance, or of Pandora's insatiable curiosity? Now, when the class is interested in these

myths, is the time to show pictures of the heroes and heroines of the past and to read selections from Homer and from modern poets whose themes have been inspired by these wonderful legends.

Such a method of study by helping to correlate English and History does much to destroy that erroneous, but deep-rooted, belief that each subject should be kept in a sealed compartment labeled, "Do not use except in German class," "Sacred to French," "Avoid except in Algebra."

Not only in the study of myths, but in hundreds of other ways, History presents material for correlation. For instance, that habit of "looking intensely at words," which Ruskin considers one of the first requisites of right reading, may be cultivated as well in a History as in an English class. What an opportunity for developing accuracy and observation is given by studying even a few words, such as, volcano, tantalize, geography, prehistoric, archaeology, aristocracy. This exercise never fails to appeal to young people. After a little training, they readily keep watch for unusual words and feel a scholarly thrill in pointing out and explaining these fascinating puzzles.

History again opens up another avenue of interest when she makes the treasures of an art museum intelligible. Many museums, such as the Boston Art Museum and the Metropolitan Museum by encouraging teachers to bring classes and by providing docents skilled in selecting material and in holding pupils' attention, do a great deal to help the school in this enjoyable undertaking. In no other way can the wonderful past be so vividly realized as by actually seeing the art and the intimate details of the life of long ago. The surprise and delight of a class when first introduced to the armor, jewelry, vases, mirrors, statues, and ever-fascinating mummies, is a convincing proof of the value of such a visit. All the everyday, intimate things seen at a museum make the pupils feel the spirit of the past as no amount of reading could do.

Another means of making students appreciate the ever-living power of the past is through recent articles in newspapers and magazines on the events in the East. The following paragraphs from "Munsey's Magazine" for April, 1914, are a convincing proof to the doubter that a knowledge of Greek History is a valuable asset to a reader: "It is twenty-four centuries, as the current of Time runs, from Salamis to Salonika. At Salamis, 480 years before the Christian era, the great Themistocles frustrated the attempt of Xerxes and his Persian host to wipe the Greek race from the roll of nations.

"From Salonika, in 1913, Constantine directed the brilliant military operations which put Greece back on the map. Thus Salamis and Salonika, though separated by the abyss of the ages, are closely related facts in the history of Greece from the dawn of civilization to our own day.

"The continuity of the Hellenic race in the yawning interval is an amazing thing in the chronicles of the world. That a people should exist since 480 B. C. is an astonishing achievement in itself. That,

after the lapse of the centuries it should retain the qualities of energy, gallantry and endurance which characterized it in the first flush of its manhood, is even more wonderful. In its moral significance the achievement at Salamis is greater than the triumph at Salamis." Not only accounts such as this of the reconstruction of the East, but descriptions of travel and narratives with settings in Greece and Italy charm the student. By planning regular trips to Rome, Athens, Constantinople, and other great cities of the ancients, with expenses, stopping-places, objects of interest to be visited—all noted carefully, a delightful subject for dreams, a worthy ambition to know something of ancient art, and a longing for the joys of travel, will be given to the pupil whose mind is too often a barren waste or a weed-choked wilderness. Maps, which must be used to make definite the discussions of travel plans, will no longer be viewed with indifference or drawn with loathing. They will gradually assert that fascination to which every real traveller always succumbs; and places, boundaries, rivers, distances will become indelibly stamped on the mind.

Other drawings used as a means, not as an end, may also be viewed with interest. Plans of buildings, of the Acropolis, of ships, drawn on the board or in note-books, help wonderfully to make the objects clear.

The boy who has been brought near by these means to the men and things of the past will even welcome with interest the review, that bug-bear of so many class-rooms. The up-to-date teacher no longer announces a 50-page test and struggles through this with patience and long-suffering. Instead, she takes the subject up from a new point of view. She suggests a contrast between American and Greek views of granting citizenship, between methods of election in Athens during the Periclean Age and modern methods, between the patriotism of a Spartan and of a Bostonian, between character ideals of the past and of the present. She encourages discussions regarding the good and the bad sides of Athenian, Spartan, Roman education, amusements, and religion. She leads the student to realize something of the debt in government, military affairs, literature, and art, we owe to the ancients. The boy who thus reviews his history not only remembers it, but also learns to do independent thinking and to draw logical conclusions from his reading.

Another effective method of review is by writing themes on subjects requiring originality as well as knowledge. A friendly rivalry and criticism may be awakened by compositions on such titles as: My Experiences at Marathon; When I Won the Prize at Olympia; My March to Thermopylae; Days Spent with the Ten Thousand; A Visit to a Greek School; The Story of a Greek Slave; A Call from an Athenian Matron. As these subjects require much outside reading, painstaking accuracy, imagination, and the vivifying of the past, the good resulting from them is inestimable.

The European War and History Teachers

A record of the events of the war now engaging in battle millions of the men of Europe would be out of place in a paper such as this. There are many excellent summaries of these facts appearing in periodicals and newspapers which should be accessible to every teacher of history.

The war has, however, its varying appeal to different classes of the American nation. All are appalled by the terrible loss of life, by the sufferings inflicted upon non-combatants, by the destruction of property and the monuments of civilization, and by the uncertainty as to the effects of the struggle upon the world at large and upon our own nation. But specific classes of our population have more vivid interests in certain phases of the war. The stockbroker must face the complete suspension of his business; the cotton producer and merchant witness the loss of their foreign market; while the wheat producer and dealer experience a rapid rise in the price of their commodity. So, too, while the importer can find no source from which to obtain his stocks, the manufacturer is hoping for a broadening in the demand for his products.

Military and naval experts are interested in the actual use in warfare of many untried inventions for offense and defense, and the moralist is already drawing his inferences from the war for the edification or improvement of the lives of his congregation.

If to each of these classes the war has its impelling interest, does it not have an equally peculiar interest for the teacher of history? Indeed, it must have for every teacher whose mind is at all trained to grasp the true significance of events. The history teacher has now the opportunity to stand as an expert guide for his school community and for the larger community about the school.

Subsequent articles in the *MAGAZINE* will discuss questions of international law, military procedure, commercial influences, and other phases of the present struggle. The present is a good time to summarize those factors of nineteenth century development, an understanding of which contributes to a proper interpretation of the war. These factors may be named—making no attempt to place them in order of importance—as follows: Racial Nationalism, Democracy, Industrialism, Socialism, World Expansion or Imperialism, and Militarism.

1. The nineteenth century is distinguished by the progress of Europe toward the establishment of national states based upon racial lines. Early in the century occurred the national uprisings against Napoleon, soon followed by the attainment of racial and political independence in Greece and Belgium. Racial nationalism is seen again in the movement toward Italian independence and union from 1848 to 1870; and in the creation of the German Federations and the German Empire. In southeastern Europe there has been a continuous diminution of the Sultan's authority and territory in favor of the native Christian races until

to-day six independent states, conforming in the main to racial lines, have been erected in territory held by the Porte in 1796. This successful attainment of national independence has rendered anachronous the instances of defiance of the racial principle, in such notable instances as Poland, Bohemia and Alsace-Lorraine. Every one knows that France was reconciled to the payment of a huge war indemnity in 1871, but that she has not for a moment since that time ceased to work for the deliverance of Alsace-Lorraine from Prussian control. This defiance of French racial feeling is largely a cause of the present European situation.

2. Never since the origin of political institutions have the masses of the people possessed so large a share in their government as they have in the later years of the nineteenth and opening years of the twentieth centuries. Accomplished in many cases by a series of revolutions against the ruling monarchs and classes, representative institutions were almost universally adopted, even Russia, Turkey and Persia granting a semblance of popular government. But there has been withal a wide divergence in Europe between democratic theories and actual political practice. Vested interests have forced compromises from the rebellious masses. Except in France, Switzerland and Portugal, republicanism has been avoided, and limited monarchies—more or less antagonistic to democratic theories—have been established. It remains to be shown that such compromises can be permanently secured. The recent attack on the English House of Lords, the influence of the labor party in England and Belgium, the strong republican feeling in Italy and Spain, the class feeling in Sweden, and the widespread socialistic propaganda in Germany and even in ostensibly republican France—all these movements point toward the end of hereditary monarchies and aristocracies. Recent European history, like that of the Grecian republics described for us by Aristotle, shows that democracy is not static; it is continually demanding greater sacrifices from the few best for the benefit of the many poor. Can the modern world find a permanent solution where the ancients failed? Will a victory for Germany in the present struggle promote or retard the democratic movement? Will a victory for the Allies be a death-blow to autocracy and the beginning of a democratic millennium?

3. Possibly the adoption of representative institutions and democratic theories would have come in course of time without the impetus given to the movement by the Industrial Revolution; but the greatest contributing factor in the establishment of popular governments in the nineteenth century was the influence of industrialism. From England to the United States and to the Continent of Europe there spread that reconstruction of the mechanical world, that reorganization of industry, and that social upheaval which goes by the name of the Industrial Revolution. Substituting power machines for human labor, establishing

great factories in place of cottage industries, adding vastly to the amount of industrial production, creating great fortunes for employers, and driving the working man from the country to the city—the Industrial Revolution always had a democratic effect. It increased class consciousness, not only by fostering an ostentatious wealthy class, but also by furnishing in factory and city an opportunity for a densely populated industrial class to attain to strength and leadership. The political revolutions of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries have followed closely upon the heels of the industrial reconstruction of European societies.

4. Socialism is an attempt to apply the democratic doctrine of legal and political equality to economic facts; in other words, to advance the well-being of the many by legislation and by state control of industrial processes. It is a natural outgrowth of industrial advance in a community accepting democratic theories. As Calvin's theory of popular rule in the church had its influence in promoting democratic political institutions, so the latter have prepared the way for a nearer approach to economic equality. The writings of the nineteenth century theoretical socialists have of course served as platforms for the practical political socialists. The socialistic organization has been strongest in those countries where class distinctions persisted in spite of representative institutions, and where the industrial classes had least influence in proportion to their numbers, notably in Germany and Italy.

National socialism has in recent years developed into an international movement, and the leaders of the propaganda had hoped through its organization to unite the masses of Europe not only against autocracy, but also in opposition to militarism and warfare. It was freely predicted that armies could not be raised and wars entered upon in the face of this socialist sentiment. The event has proved that neither this movement nor the philanthropic peace movement has been strong enough to prevent a response to the old call of monarchs upon the patriotism of their subjects.

5. The occupation of other continents by Europeans, begun in the fifteenth century, has culminated to-day in their control of almost the entire globe. Only under the sufferance of Europe has the independence of Turkey, Persia and China been permitted to exist. Only under the grace or wisdom of European states do native princes rule in India, Africa, or the islands of the sea. Japan, the only exception to this European conquest, has gained the recognition of European states by adopting European civilization.

The European colonies furnished an outlet for the surplus population or undesirable elements of the home states; they have enriched the mother countries; and—in the nineteenth century particularly—they have furnished a market for the goods produced in vast amount by the new industrialism. In this respect, Germany has been at a disadvantage, since she attained national existence only after Great Britain, France, Holland, Spain and Portugal had occupied the parts of the globe most habitable by Europeans,

or producing the most valuable raw materials. She gave her men and women indeed in great numbers in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries to North and South America, but she aided thereby the development of Anglo-Saxon United States or Spanish Argentine and Portuguese Brazil; her national area and colonial influence have not grown at the same rate that wealth, industrial production, and population have increased in the mother country. In America she has been thwarted by the Monroe Doctrine; in Asia by the Hay policy of national integrity and open-door commerce for China; in the East Indies by prior occupation of English and Dutch. Except in Africa she has been compelled to satisfy her colonial land hunger with the crumbs left by her competitors. Advancing more rapidly in industrial civilization than any other state of western Europe, she has not had the advantage of colonial markets for her goods. For years she has consciously prepared for the time when she must settle her reckoning with France, and when she must compel England and other states to share with her their colonial empires.

6. It is remarkable that the century which saw in western Europe the widest application of the democratic principle, which witnessed well-nigh universal compulsory education, which brought the world by international trade and intercourse into the closest relationship, and which was marked by a hitherto unknown strength of international and philanthropic associations—it is remarkable that this century should also have produced a military organization altogether unique in the world's history. Militarism to-day, with its compulsory army service and its enormously expensive fleets, is the creature of Prussian policy. Whether that policy was a justifiable one or not, publicists of the present day are not agreed, and probably future historians will not be in agreement; but it cannot be denied that Prussia forced the other states to adopt a policy which in the end made a great martial camp of Christian and civilized Europe.

Geographic and dynastic considerations dating back to the Great Elector and the Thirty Years' War forced Prussia either to excel the other states in military ability or to see her territory parcelled out among her many rivals. No dynasty in European history, not even excepting the early Capetian line in France, has possessed the constructive power, the consecutive policy and the national support in the same measure as the Hohenzollern. Frederick the Great and his nation survived what Carlyle calls his "baptism of fire." The close of the Napoleonic period saw the establishment of a system of compulsory military training for large masses of the Prussian population. Bismarck saw the latent power of the Prussian fighting machine, and used his "blood and iron" policy to acquire more German lands for Prussia; later driving out Austria from German affairs, overthrowing the French, and at last forming the national state—the German Empire.

Since that time the compulsory army service has been retained ostensibly as a bulwark against French

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The Reconstruction of History Teaching¹

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It is common knowledge that there is widespread and severe criticism as to the results of history and civics teaching. Among the critics are history teachers, history writers, educators, a host of parents, and an almost countless number of boys and girls who consider the study of history as a necessary evil. Perhaps Dr. Snedden, Massachusetts Commissioner of Education, has summed up the opinion of these critics as well as anyone in his book, "Problems of Educational Readjustment," Chapter IV. He says: "all of us feel vaguely, that in history, if anywhere, should be found valuable means of liberal education. But scientific methods, an insufficient pedagogy, and a prevailing lack of social insight have contributed to the sterilization of this subject as a soil for the growth of ideals, sentiments, and useful social knowledge." "The study of history as now carried on in secondary schools, does not 'function' in appreciable modification of civic attitudes, ideals, or knowledge, because teachers of history do not certainly know what results they seek, in terms of valid educational utilities, their efforts seem to be largely wasted, if measured in terms of better citizenship." "History courses, as now found, especially in secondary schools, reflect only the most superficial pedagogical organization." "As respects both aims and methods, the various courses of history are still in essential respects unexplored territory." "Both historian and history teacher tend to organize and interpret the sources of history without reference to the significance or applicability of these to the problems of present and future social life." "History teaching fails to serve as an instrument of civic education in the secondary schools because its aims are undefined and its organization and study are pedagogically unsound." These statements are severe, and if true constitute a serious denunciation of the ordinary history writer and history teacher.

In discussing the Reconstruction of History Teaching it might be well to arrange what we have to say under three headings, namely:

1. The Point of View
2. Subject Matter, and
3. Results.

I. The Point of View.

At the present time there are two groups or schools of history writers and history teachers, and these two schools are radically and sometimes almost unforgivingly opposed to each other. The older school, which may be termed the conservative, reactionary, stand-pat school, says that history should be studied for history's sake. Some of this school say that the pri-

mary, others say that the *only* object at which the teacher of history should aim is to impart as much knowledge of the history of the *past* as possible; that the function of history teaching is not to enable the pupil to understand or appreciate his social environment and the problems of his own time. These say that such a function is wrong because it is making the study of history bear almost wholly upon the present and the future—wrong because it is always drawing attention to what we are to become. And as history teachers, we are not to be concerned about the present, not about the future. In the eyes of this school the function of history teaching is to draw attention to things that have been, because they have been. We are to center our thoughts in the life that *was*. Study the facts! Study the facts! The facts of the life that *has been!* And stop right there.

In very recent years another school of history writers and history teachers has arisen, which may be termed the insurgent, progressive, radical school. The point of view of this school is fundamentally different from the view point of the older school. The newer school says 'study the past, know the facts of the past, study the things that have been, but *what* things and *why?* Just *because* the things of the past *have been?* Just because we wish to lay claim to being "cultured," "educated" beings? "No! No!" This newer school says: study the past, but don't stop *right* there. Study the past not simply to know the past *because* it is the past, but study the past so as to know how the present has come to be. Don't stop there even, says this recent school, but go a step further, and study the *present*, so as to understand the life that *now is*. Study the past and the present so that we may intelligently analyze the present and its problems. This school believes that historical facts or events are comparatively of little value unless they have a bearing upon the present world of thought and action. The real function of history teachings according to the new school is to develop *constructive* and *interpretative* power in order that we may rightly judge contemporaneous problems, movements, institutions, and public leaders. We are to study history not for history's sake, but for our sake and for our children's sake.

To illustrate the spirit of this school, it is their contention that it is wrong to send forth each year from the publicly supported schools into the life of the public a multitude of youth without *useful* knowledge, without knowledge of American government and of present-day conditions, without knowledge of existing social, economic, and political evils, without knowledge of the great forces that have been turning this old world upside down in the last twenty-five years—forces that have caused the disintegration of ancient monarchies and established republics in their

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places; without knowledge of the evils of child labor and life-robbing conditions of the laboring class; without knowledge of the surging forces that are causing the spread of Socialism and the ideals of the Industrial Workers of the World; without knowledge of the wickedness of corrupt politics and corrupt business methods. This school maintains that it is socially criminal to send forth scores of thousands of boys and girls every year into a social organism without giving them an understanding of the essential conditions and needs of that organism when it is crying loud for intelligent and true leadership. It is this school that has caused within the last few years a revolution in viewpoint, selection of material, and methods of history teaching, and the revolution from all present indications, is spreading with great rapidity. It is this school that has forced to the front the question of the reconstruction of history teaching.

In addition to the above criticism, the newer school maintains that there are other fundamental reasons why the theory of history teaching of the older school should be modified and history teaching reorganized. (1) One of these reasons is that the results of history teaching according to the other theory are far from satisfactory. The *permanent* acquisitions are far too meager. In the study of the minutiae of history we have lost history. The residuum has not justified the terrific exertion of school authorities and school teachers and the huge expense to which the public has been put. A very keen observer and competent judge has said that he thinks that boys and girls do not remember one-tenth of one per cent. of all the facts they are asked to learn in the history courses. Further results of the older theory are that the customary way of teaching history has a deadening and ruinous effect upon the interest the adolescent would naturally have in such an inherently live subject; that boys and girls leave our schools after spending ten or twelve years in them almost completely out of touch with current issues and problems, knowing more of the sixteenth century than of the twentieth; that they have almost no understanding of the world they are about to live in; that the history courses usually fail to make pupils think; that the public is not getting its money's worth.

(2) Then, the newer school says that the older way of teaching history is based on a false theory of culture, that theory being that culture is a product of the study of things *hoary with age*. Who says that is *the way* to get culture? Culture? What is culture? Will a pupil or an adult receive any more culture in studying the recorded deeds of old military chieftains and elaborate descriptions of old tombs than he would receive in making a careful critical study of the Panama Canal tolls repeal bill with its historic background? Is it not pertinent to ask whether we have not by means of our immemorial conception of culture developed false ideals of culture, hypocritical ideals of culture?

(3) Again, the newer school says that the old theory of history teaching from a truly educational viewpoint rests upon a psychologically unsound basis. From the standpoint of psychology a pupil will not

and cannot learn effectively, and what he learns will not remain with him permanently unless he has direct interest in the work in hand, and that interest must be an interest similar in kind to that which he has in sports. Just as soon as our students in history realize that the subject matter has a direct bearing upon problems of vital everyday interest they will become interested in history. But if the study of history is allowed to mean to them little more than the collecting of the facts of the past, they will have no interest in collecting the facts. They can see no great value in merely collecting facts. They had rather play ball, because they can see some use in doing that. It is Lowell, I believe, who says that "there is nothing less profitable than scholarship for the mere sake of scholarship, nor anything more wearisome in the attainment." Pupils know that they are not called upon to live in the ancient or medieval world. If, however, the average pupil can be made to see that certain phases of the ancient world and of the medieval world have directly affected our world, he not only will become interested, but he will also remember those phases of the past to his dying day. If he can't see this, he will have just about as much interest in the study of history as Mike (of whom Professor Muzzey tells) had in what a college professor was saying about Nero to a class of settlement boys. The professor was telling how wicked Nero was, how he kicked his wife, poisoned his courtiers, killed his mother, and longed to sever the heads of all his subjects. Then the professor turned to Mike and said: "Well, Mike, what do you think of this man Nero?" Mike aroused himself sufficiently to draw out: "Huh! he never done nothing to me." The psychology of the older school of history teachers is wrong because the intellectual apparatus of the pupil is regarded as being made up of "mental cold-storage chambers" to be packed full of uncorrelated, inarticulate, and therefore meaningless, facts, data, and statistics. The mind of a pupil is not a "mental cold-storage house."

(4) Another reason why the theory of history teaching of this school should be abandoned is that it is based upon an educational ideal of a bygone age. Almost all of our courses in history and most of our history text-books have been planned specifically to meet an aristocratic ideal, namely, the preparing of pupils to meet college entrance examinations. Exceedingly few public school pupils ever go to college. Millions upon millions of those who have gone through the public schools have not gone to college, and we are educating millions these days who will never go further than the high school. Yet, strange to say, we write history and we teach history just as though every one was going to college! Think of it! It is about time that public school officials and public school teachers rose up in rebellion against the domination of the public schools from above! The courses in history should be planned not to meet an aristocratic ideal, but to meet the needs of a democracy. Free public schools are pledged to serve the community. They are maintained at public expense for *public benefit*. Otherwise the public would not employ about 500,000 public servants (school teachers) and

expend every year nearly \$500,000,000. And when public school officials and teachers feel certain that a departure from the old order of school teaching is going to benefit the public, it is their solemn duty to make the change. In addition, the history course should be so transformed as to meet the requirements of a new and complex social and economic order. A new age is upon us demanding the *practical application* of the study of the past to the needs of the present. Most of our history text-books were written for one age, while our pupils are living in another age. This makes the books dry, uninteresting and impracticable. It is said that we have made greater progress in the last one hundred years than in the previous three thousand years. And the nearer we come to 1914 the greater is the scope and the intensity of progress. Yet, we are teaching our pupils but little of the recent important years. As some one has put it, "the text-books usually leave off about the time the student was born, so the world he learns about is not the world he lives in." Such a condition is an absurdity.

The newer school of history writers and history teachers maintain, then, that there are at least these five capital reasons for the reconstruction of history teaching, namely: (1) that history should be taught not for history's sake, but for our sake and our children's sake; (2) that the results of the older theory of history teaching are decidedly unsatisfactory; (3) that the older view is based on a false theory of culture; (4) that from a truly educational point of view the old theory rests upon a psychologically unsound basis; and (5) that it is based upon an educational ideal of a bygone age.

II. Subject Matter.

So much for the point of view. What should we have for subject matter? Considerable has already been implied. Briefly stated, the subject matter which has been studied in the past would be cut down so that what has been done in four years would now be done in three years, and still not leave out any comparatively important matter. The process would be that of eliminating all that is comparatively worthless from the standpoint of culture, from the standpoint of what the ordinary man ever needs to know, and from the standpoint of articulating the past with the life of to-day.

There are but few really and deeply significant movements, institutions, and men in the history of any nation. And the further back we go in history, the fewer big things do we find that have a bearing on the present world of thought and action. Such things would receive serious and intensive study. Thus content would be put into those things that are worth while, and it would be rather difficult to forget them. Put in another way, this process of elimination means that considerably less time would be given to pre-nineteenth century European and American history, and much more time given to the study of history from the nineteenth century to the present day, the last twenty years of European and American history

receiving considerable attention. *But the course of history throughout should be thoroughly modernized.* Notice how some of our very recent history text-book writers have phrased this idea in their prefaces.

(1) "It is doubtful if a text-book should give room to any incident which the student cannot articulate with the life of to-day. This accounts for the omission of many names and events commonly found in text-books." West: Revised Ancient World.

(2) "In the selection of these essentials, many details formerly deemed vital to a knowledge of history have been purposely omitted in an attempt to mirror the customs and life of the people and to explain the meaning of the great economic, social and early modern times, always having in mind their influence on present civilization." Howe: Essentials in Early European History.

(3) "In conformity with what is now the established tendency, greater emphasis has been put on the events of our own time than on those of former ages. It is now generally recognized that a leading aim of the study of history is to enable one to understand the world of to-day." Harding: New Medieval and Modern History.

(4) "This volume represents the newer tendencies in historical writing. Emphasis is given to those factors in our national development which appeal to us as most vital from the standpoint of to-day. The most unmistakable advantage of historical study is to explain prevailing conditions and institutions by showing how they have come about. This is our best way to understand the present and be in a position to participate intelligently in the solution of the great social and political problems we face. All minor and uncorrelated matters have been boldly omitted on the ground that they make no permanent impression on the student's mind and serve only to confuse and blur the larger issues." Muzzey: American History.

(5) "The purpose of this manual is to narrate the history of the past in such a fashion as to help make plain the events and problems of our world. It has been the authors' ever-conscious aim to enable the reader to catch up with his own times." Robinson and Beard: Outlines of European History. Part II.

(6) "I have sought to furnish a background for the leading issues of current politics and to enlist the interest of the student in the history of the most wonderful period in American development. It is showing no disrespect to our ancestors to be as much interested in our age as they were in theirs; and the doctrine that we can know more about Andrew Jackson whom we have not seen than about Theodore Roosevelt, whom we have seen, is a pernicious psychological error." Charles A. Beard: Contemporary American History.

Thus you see we have authors now writing history text-books whose great desire is to get our boys and girls to intelligently appreciate the background of present problems and issues.

But it is necessary to take one step more before the process of the reconstruction of history teaching is

complete. It is this: the time saved by eliminating all that is comparatively worthless from our history courses should be devoted to very *practical* study of (1) civics, (2) the policies, beliefs, and platforms of our present political parties, and (3) present problems and issues, usually termed current events. A course composed of these three elements could very appropriately be termed a Course in Citizenship.

Civics is almost lost in the history courses. It should receive much more attention than it is receiving, and if this were rightly done such a study would aid greatly in causing our pupils to understand present-day politics and current problems. Too many teachers of history do not appreciate how tremendously important it is that the 20,000,000 attending our various public and semi-public schools understand political parties and their beliefs. Nearly all appointments, nearly all questions coming before the city, state and national legislatures are settled on political party lines. In the Federal service there are said to be nearly 400,000 positions to which appointments are made directly or indirectly by the president and members of his cabinet, and the salaries connected with these aggregate probably at least \$200,000,000. Add to these the positions in our states, cities and towns and the sum total is staggering. And these, with those elected by political parties, are the men that determine the kind of a political world in which we must live. Our government from top to bottom is distinctively a party government. Yet, there is scarcely a boy or girl leaving our schools soon to take up the privilege of the franchise who could tell the differences between the present political parties. They are to leave our schools to live in a democracy governed by politics, knowing comparatively nothing of the politics of that democracy. And the thing that is so exasperating to some teachers of history is that the great body of teachers themselves have no prickings of conscience in sending high school boys and girls out into the twentieth century with a more intimate knowledge of the round vaulted tombs of Mycenae than they have knowledge of the beliefs of our political leaders and political parties. Our newspaper editors chide and scold because the public is so careless about legislative doings. But how can we expect anything else when the only institution in the United States with the facilities is *keeping* the young citizens of the land from understanding legislative doings? The history, the policies, the beliefs, the platforms, of all our leading parties should receive careful study. The future effect of such a study on the American electorate cannot be overestimated. The foreign element in our nation needs this political instruction in particular before the Tammany organizations everywhere impart to them biased, partisan, and corrupt political ideas.

Every high school, academy, and college in the United States should be doing in current problems what we are doing in the Hope Street High School, or something quite similar. Every week every senior and every junior in the English department is required to keep a current event note book in which he

must arrange for the week ten current events under the three headings: (1) local events; (2) national events; (3) international and foreign events. The substance of the events must be written out and the references given. And in *addition* to this work we have studied and discussed in class this year among other topics the following: (1) Tammany Hall; (2) the Governor's Address; (3) the Mayor's Address; (4) the milk situation in Providence and the new milk bill; (5) the proposed subway system for Providence; (6) the election of a police commissioner for Providence; (7) all of President Wilson's messages; (8) the new tariff; (9) the new currency law; (10) the Panama Canal tolls question; (11) the income tax law; (12) our Mexican policy; (13) the work of Lloyd George in England; (14) Ulster and Irish Home Rule; (15) and the militant suffragette movement in England compared with the woman suffrage movement in the United States. In considering such questions our pupils learn practical civics, legislative doings, become interested in the fundamental issues of to-day, and ask questions of a practical nature. Such study is an excellent *preparation for college* as well as for life, because of the stimulating effect on the mind.

Those who stand for the reconstruction of history teaching suggest that the courses in history be arranged somewhat according to the following units: (Compare Bulletin No. 41, U. S. Bureau of Education, 1913, pp. 16-24.)

1. For the first year, European history to about 1700 (England included, of course).
2. For the second year, European history since about 1700 (including contemporary civilizations).
3. For the third year, United States history since 1760 to the latest presidential election.
4. For the fourth year, a course in citizenship composed of civics, practical politics and current (problems) events.

III. Results.

In conclusion, what would be some of the fundamental benefits of such a reconstruction of history teaching?

1. It will dissipate the idea that history is a matter of the past only and therefore a dead subject. This new living way of teaching history will put flesh on old dry bones and breathe life into the dead.
2. It will correlate the work of the school room more truly with life. One of the most lamentable things about the topics of the school room is that they are so confessedly isolated from our every-day living. How much time, for instance, have you spent this week out in society talking about John Milton's *Minor Poems*, the *iota subscript*, the *ablative absolute*, *Achilles*, or *Cerberus*? Such subjects are all right as far as they go, but they should be subordinated to the things more akin to our every-day needs.
3. It will give our pupils something worth while to talk about, and bring the school and the home in closer relationship to each other. To do this is to

render a really valuable social service. The utter barrenness of the conversation of school children after ten or twelve years of training in our public schools is a matter to be deeply regretted.

4. It would give our pupils a modern vocabulary which they so much need. Much of the vocabulary of a first-class editor or magazine contributor is a Chinese puzzle to the average young American. To my astonishment I found that there were about twenty common political terms used by President Wilson in one of his messages which most of the senior class in American history failed to understand. They were just the words, too, one should know in order to get the meaning of the message. I believe the average teacher scarcely thinks of this very serious matter. If for no other reason than this, the magazines should be used liberally in the study of current problems.

5. It will make our pupils *think* and give them practice with ideas that require controversy, differences of view, balance of reasons, and suspension of judgment. It will make them see that there are two sides to a question, teach them the art of courteous disagreement, and tend to make them open-minded.

6. It will enable the young American to understand the pressing problems of the time and aid in equipping him to help solve them. This means that he will be better able to judge rightly contemporaneous movements, institutions and leaders. And in doing this we shall be accomplishing the real function of our public schools, which is, to enable each individual to make the most of himself, and at the same time make it possible for him to contribute intelligently toward public well-being.

As partial practical proof of these conclusions let me submit to you some excerpts from an unexpected examination to seniors on the question: "Why should high school pupils study current problems?" In answer to this question the pupils in my classes say that the study of current problems is important because—

1. It not only keeps us informed as to what is going on, but it makes me feel that it is my *duty* to find out what is going on in our city, our state, our nation, and among the nations.

2. It gives us the different views held by different writers on a particular question, and forces one to draw his own conclusions.

3. It gets one into the habit of reading about important topics, a habit that is pretty hard to get rid of, and one that we don't want to get rid of.

4. It increases one's vocabulary.

5. It lets us know who our distinguished men are and why they believe as they do.

6. By it we find out what is going on in foreign countries and we are shown the attitude of those countries toward us, and our attitude toward them.

7. It reveals the needs of our city, state and nation.

8. It gives us a whole lot we would otherwise miss, because of an inclination not to look such things up unless asked to do so.

9. It makes of us more intelligent citizens and better future voters.

10. It not only makes history study more interesting, but it also helps us in English and declamation.

11. It makes me *think* whether I want to or not.

12. I am not dumb when I hear older persons discussing the topics of the day. And it enables me to join in conversation with my father and brother.

13. It pleases my parents when they see that I am able to talk about something worth while, instead of fashions and parties.

14. It offers to each pupil a chance to express his own opinion, which opportunity is not given to him in other courses.

15. Now I can read the news columns, editorials, and magazine articles with intelligence and *delight*.

How can we adults be so frozen, so glued, to some ancient theory of history teaching and do our young people so great a wrong as to question whether history ought to be taught in this new living way? When we withhold from the boys and girls of our land such valuable information and training, we are at the same time withholding from the public a more intelligent and effective citizenship.

Collateral Reading

Editor HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

SIR:—In the June number of "Education" appears an interesting paper entitled "College Entrance Requirements in History, in Theory and in Practice," which was presented by Professor MacDonald before a meeting of the Brown University Teachers Association, in April last. The general subject for discussion was "The Reorganization of History Teaching"; and, somewhat as a text, the program made reference to a recent report of the committee of the College Entrance Examination Board, which called attention to the results of the history examinations, and suggested "that at some time in the not far distant future the question may be presented to the Board whether it will continue the present history requirements, or deliberately change its requirements, and adapt them to the work which is now being done in the schools."

Professor MacDonald begins his address with a statement that he will not discuss the general question of history as a proper subject for college admission requirements, or the particular periods or countries to be dealt with, or the amount of time that should be given to the subject, or the relative merit of examination or certification tests, but will consider principally the requirement of supplementary or collateral reading. The advocacy of such reading as an indispensable part of the secondary school work in history was, says Professor MacDonald, the "distinguishing characteristic" of the report of the Committee of Seven. That report "certainly disparaged the text-book as the sole manual for study," and "with equal emphasis, * * * condemned the exercises of 'mere

memory' and formal recitation, and urged the superior merits of the 'laboratory method.' "If the report means anything in this connection," continues Professor MacDonald, "it means that no history text-book, however well contrived, can of itself afford satisfactory knowledge of the period of which it treats, either as an element in the school curriculum or as a subject for admission to college." To carry this scheme into effect has been the constant effort of teachers' associations, the College Entrance Examination Board, publishers and authors. "Yet the net result of all this effort is the verdict of the Committee of Review of the College Entrance Examination Board, lately made public, that the examinations in history set by the Board showed the largest percentage of failures of any set by that body, and that a reconsideration of the history requirements must apparently soon be undertaken if a higher percentage of pass marks is not forthcoming."

With this introduction, Professor MacDonald proceeds to urge "that the existing requirement, so far as collateral reading is concerned, is both illogical and impossible, and that it should either be radically modified or else abandoned altogether." He doubts the analogy derived from laboratory work in science, which he thinks inapplicable to the elementary study of history. In the first place, the history course varies infinitely in content. This or that school gives varying emphasis on the different periods of American history, and similar lack of agreement appears in the other courses. "One looks in vain through the literature of the subject for any general recognition of a content comparable in any respect to that which is found in most other subjects on which students enter college." The history requirement of the College Entrance Examination Board is "almost ludicrous in its inadequacy." Again, the present requirement of collateral reading is absurd, because impracticable. Schools do not have adequate school libraries and have "made no serious effort to meet the requirements of history by providing the working material upon which conformity to those requirements absolutely depends." Nor is the existing teaching force competent to handle the requirement. Furthermore, the requirement of collateral reading, so far as it disparages text-books and the use of memory, is illogical. For the information in the text-book is more accurate and expressed in better language than that of the pupil can possibly be. Professor MacDonald urges that a student had better learn facts from a sound and scholarly text than deal in "slovenly English, ignorance of common names and dates, scrappy reading in this larger narrative or that volume of 'selections,' immature expression of opinion about what might have happened if something had not, or dangerous drawing of parallels between a little known past and a less known present." Professor MacDonald would not confine historical reading to text-books; indeed, he would increase the facility for other reading, but this should be "largely if not wholly voluntary." "It may well vivify the subject, but it should not replace the text-book or

any portion of it, or be substituted for the accurate knowledge of fundamental facts, whose truth has long since been determined, and which for most students are best learned outright." Lastly, collateral reading cannot be tested by the colleges, because individual tests for individual students are impracticable. The schools knowing this as well as the college neglect the collateral reading, and in fact "rely chiefly upon text-books, while pretending not to do so. * * *" "Is it any wonder that under such circumstances the great majority of candidates fail, and that the study of history in the schools does not advance?"

For these reasons Professor MacDonald, in conclusion, urges a reconsideration of both the content and the method of the history requirement. "Each historical field—Ancient, Medieval and Modern European, English and American—should, if retained, be so stated as to show with some precision the topics, or classes of topics, to be treated, and the chronological proportion. The farce of announcing 'English history' as a requirement should end, and the school be told what parts or aspects of that vast subject the college expects." The text-book should be reinstated "as the core, and for most purposes, the sufficient body, of elementary instruction." As to collateral reading, "the particular books or parts of books expected to be read should be specified, and examination questions set upon them," or there should be no requirement of such reading.

I have given this lengthy summary of Professor MacDonald's paper, and have quoted his own words so fully, because I wish to avoid the slightest imputation of unfair quotation when I submit that Professor MacDonald's address, while of unquestionable force and sincerity, is not entirely sound in its logic and is calculated, if misunderstood, to do very serious harm. In view of Professor MacDonald's experience in that field one ventures with considerable trepidation to enter upon the discussion of any point connected with entrance examinations. Let me say, therefore, at the outset, that with Professor MacDonald's *conclusions* I am absolutely in accord. I do not see how anyone who approaches the subject thoughtfully can fail to agree as to the crying need for greater definiteness in the requirements in history. I may be permitted to refer to my own plea for such a redefinition as stated on page 90, of Volume 5, of the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE. But I beg to point out that this is not what Professor MacDonald undertook to discuss. It was the requirement of collateral reading which he denounced. If he is right in insisting upon a return to the use of the text-book exclusively, or almost exclusively, then the rest of us have certainly been deceived these many years and have been assiduously deceiving others.

It seems to me that Professor MacDonald's representation of the opinion of the Committee of Seven concerning text-books is hardly fair, as that report certainly favored the use of the text as a general rule. The Committee of Five also said "That in addition to learning, and learning *well*, a reasonable amount of history from the texts, the pupil should

gain something more." For this additional "something" Professor MacDonald has little respect; and the reason for his lack of faith he grounds on the results of college entrance examination. I doubt the correctness of this deduction.

I have been at pains to examine the questions set by the Board for the June, 1913, examinations, which caused the slaughter of the innocents that has stirred Professor MacDonald. In the ancient history questions I fail to find a single question which directly and of necessity is based on collateral reading. The pupil is indeed asked, "What are the sources of our knowledge of Socrates?" and "What contemporary source describes the conquest of Cæsar?"—the latter query reminding one of "Who was the father of Zebedee's children?" In the Medieval and Modern questions there is not a single one which definitely relates to matters that might not be comprised in a text. In the English history questions indeed, the student is asked to mention the author and title of any books he has read on Chivalry; and a similar question is included in the American history questions. Finally on every paper is included a request for the author and title of the text-book used in the course and for the authors and titles of any additional books used in connection with the course. It seems hardly possible that the examiners "failed" so many students for their inability to answer these specific questions on collateral reading, in cases where the answers to the other questions were satisfactory. It must be then that the *results* of collateral reading were pre-supposed in the questions which asked matters of fact or required some comparison or explanation. "What part did Gustavus Adolphus and Richelieu play in the Thirty Years' War? How are the religious convictions of the latter to be reconciled with his political action?" Doubtless the answers to this were often unsatisfactory; but was this merely or chiefly because the question presupposed collateral reading, which the students had not had?

In the next place, has any effort been made to ascertain whether students from schools which do not indulge in this vicious practice of diffusing the student's time among many books, but stick strictly to the text-book and to "mere memory," fare any better in the College Entrance Examinations? Even as to the Board's examinations, Professor MacDonald, while in general attributing the heavy death rate in failures to the collateral reading, somewhat contradictorily admits that not many schools give much collateral reading. But however that may be, here in the South schools are generally guiltless of any excessive devotion to this additional work. We have here text-books and "mere memory" in all their glory; but it must be confessed that the examination papers which we read for entrance to college are not encouragingly superior to those of which Professor MacDonald complains.

Are not the real sources of difficulty the lack of preparation in the history teachers of the secondary schools and the lack of agreement as to what topics should be emphasized—the last duly recognized by Professor MacDonald? These, it seems to me, are

the real difficulties, and they apply equally to work in the text-book and to work in the library, not to the latter alone. What I deplore in Professor MacDonald's article is that it will be understood as a general attack upon exercises other than those of the text, an attack which comes strangely from the author of a "Documentary Source Book in American History" and a most valuable and suggestive paper on "An Historical Laboratory." It is true that the latter may have reference to college work, but it would certainly seem unwise to attempt to discourage the beginnings of such work in the schools because of the failures in the College Entrance Board examinations. Yet that is just what Professor MacDonald's article in "Education" will do. It will be seized upon by principals and superintendents, and by tired teachers, in opposition to the efforts of those who are laboring to improve the equipment of schools. That this is no imaginary fear upon my part is shown by the fact that it was a high school teacher, and an interested one, who called my attention to Professor MacDonald's article, just as she was entering upon a summer session course described as "Methods of Teaching History," in which one of the chief purposes of the instructor was to emphasize the desirability of collateral reading! It is hard to be wounded in the house of one's friend.

ST. GEORGE L. SIOUSSAT

Vanderbilt University

THE EUROPEAN WAR AND HISTORY TEACHERS

(Continued from page 222)

revenge and the danger of a Slav invasion. The present emperor, not content with meeting his rivals on land, entered upon a grand naval policy, which has served to alienate Great Britain from him. In order to keep her command of the seas and preserve her colonial empire, England has been forced to increase her navy; yet every year has seen her superiority lessened. Her navy, once equal to all of Europe combined, is with difficulty maintained at twice the size of the German fleet, and to-day England gladly accepts French assistance in the Mediterranean.

The abounding productivity of the new industrialism in Germany permitted the adequate support of the dual army-navy policy. But adopted by other states as a matter of imitation or of self-protection, the burden has become almost unbearable. A few months ago, after Germany had again increased the size of her standing army, France passed a law requiring every man to serve in the army three years instead of two; but it was freely stated that she could do no more. If Germany took any further step it were better to bring on a contest at once rather than wait until the discrepancy in the two armies became greater.

Thus strange as it may seem, German militarism is supported by German industrial success; and there are many in Germany to-day who believe that further industrial progress cannot be attained until the new strength of Germany is used in expanding her sphere of influence at the expense of those who hold the best parts of the world.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR

Miss Anna L. Moore, of the Framingham Normal School, will be absent on leave during the academic year 1914-15.

Professor Sydney B. Fay, of Dartmouth College, has resigned to accept a professorship of European History in Smith College in the place of Professor Charles D. Hazen, who has resigned to engage in literary work. Professor Frank M. Anderson, of the University of Minnesota, will take Professor Fay's place at Dartmouth.

Dr. H. L. Gray has been promoted to an assistant professorship at Harvard College.

Dr. Frederic Duncalf, of the University of Illinois, has been made professor of Medieval History in the University of Texas.

Dr. Carl F. Hurth has been elected assistant professor of Ancient History in the University of Chicago.

Professor A. L. P. Dennis will be absent on leave from the University of Wisconsin during the academic year 1914-15.

Assistant Professor W. L. Westerman has been made full Professor in the University of Wisconsin.

Professor Percy F. Martin, of the University of California, will be absent on leave during the first half of the academic year 1914-15. He will study in Europe, chiefly in Spain.

Dr. John Haynes, of the Hyde Park High School, will publish shortly, through the Houghton Mifflin Co., a monograph on Economics in the Schools.

Miss Blanche Evans Hazard, of the High School of Practical Arts of Boston, has been appointed Assistant Professor of Home Economics in the New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University. Her work will begin with the second semester and will be along the line of social history, a department in which she has shown marked ability in her present position and elsewhere.

Prof. Ralph Charles Henry Catterall, of the history department in Cornell University, died at Ithaca, N. Y., August 4. Professor Catterall was born at Bolton, England, March 29, 1866, and came to this country with his parents when he was three years of age. He was educated first in the public schools, and then was graduated from Bucknell University in 1891. The following year he obtained a bachelor of arts degree from Harvard for special work, and became an instructor in history in the University of Chicago. He went to Cornell in 1905 to assume the chair of professor of modern European history. In addition to text-books, Professor Catterall was the author of "The Second Bank of the United States."

The present European war is receiving serious attention from American educators, according to news dispatches. A report comes from New York City that regular and serious study of the war will be made in the public schools, including not only the geographical and tactical development of the military struggle, but international aspects as well. Students will be encouraged to study the map of Europe in detail. On the other hand, Acting Superintendent Jacobs, in Philadelphia, has forbidden discussion of the war or of any historical events which serve to arouse racial feelings. Probably this means the elimination of all nineteenth century history from the schools. By hiding his head in the sand an ostrich seeks protection from danger!

FORTH-COMING MEETINGS

The Kansas History Teachers' Association will meet in Topeka, Kansas, November 13, 1914.

The South Dakota Teachers' Association, one department of which is devoted to history, will meet at Lead during the Thanksgiving week.

The Tennessee History Teachers' Association will meet in Nashville in connection with the Middle Tennessee Educational Association in April, 1915.

The next meeting of the Indiana History Teachers' Association will be held in February, 1915, probably in Indianapolis.

The Missouri Society of Teachers of History and Government will meet in St. Joseph, November 12-14, 1914, as a section of the Missouri State Teachers' Association.

The Association of the History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland will meet in New York City, Saturday after Thanksgiving, November 28, and in Baltimore in the spring of 1915.

The regular meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association will take place on Friday and Saturday, October 23 and 24, at Boston, Mass.

On Friday afternoon there will be a session upon Community Civics at the rooms of the Massachusetts Historical Society. In the evening, at some place to be chosen, there will be a meeting to which all members of the American Historical Association and American Political Science Association are especially invited. The subject of several papers will be "Recent English History." This will probably be preceded by a subscription dinner.

On Saturday morning the Association will meet again at the rooms of the Massachusetts Historical Society and will discuss "How Far May History Courses in School be a Preparation for History Courses in College." Professor Foster, of Dartmouth, and Professor Gray, of Harvard, will lead the discussion, which will be continued by others, including Miss Tuell, of Somerville.

At 1.15 p.m. the members of the Association and guests will lunch at the Carlton.

During Saturday afternoon and probably Friday the exhibition rooms of the Massachusetts Historical Society will be open to visitors, as will also the Collection of Historical Material belonging to this Association on exhibition at the Museum of Fine Arts. Preceding the discussion on Saturday morning will be the election of officers for the ensuing year, and the reports by the various committees.

The May number of the Texas "History Teachers' Bulletin" contains an article by Professor T. W. Riker, of the University of Texas, on "The Art of Studying the Text Book." Professor H. A. Kellar, of the University of Texas, has a long article on "Some Suggestions for Equipment in History Teaching in the High School." These suggestions consist of lists of books, maps, pictures and other illustrative material.

Mr. J. B. Layne, of the Comanche High School, contributes some suggestions on "Note-book Work in Medieval and Modern History." The "Bulletin" also has a copy of a questionnaire that is being sent out to history teachers in Texas high schools. The usual personals and book reports are included.

The 83d annual convention of the American Institute of Instruction was held at Cambridge, Mass., July 1-3, 1914. At the High School Conference the civics section, under the leadership of Prof. A. B. Hart and Mr. Arthur W. Dunn, secretary of the National Municipal League, and a member of the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, discussed the topic, "Reorganization of Instruction in Civics to Meet Present Civic and Social Needs," the most pressing problem of the curriculum.

Professor Hart suggested three points to be borne in mind in giving instruction in civics; first, avoid the question of divided sovereignty; second, teach government as a living thing; third, impress upon the child his personal interest in government; have him realize that it is his government.

The following set of questions had been submitted previous to the conference by Superintendent Dyer, of Boston, to serve as a basis for the discussion:

Topic: Instruction in civics to meet present civic and social needs with special reference to the early adolescent period.

1. What should be the leading purpose (aim, motive, thought) in a course of civics for youth from 14 to 16?
2. Should the "dominant interest" be a controlling factor in determining matter and method?
3. What are the needs and interests of this period of life that should be met through instruction in civics?
4. Are such matters as elections, law making, taxes, labor organizations, labor laws, factory inspection, etc., within the interests of 14 to 16-year-old children?
5. What laws are of immediate interest; what institutions; what city problems?
6. What sources of information are open to the students from 14 to 16? Is a text-book course worth while? Should there be direct instruction or should information be collected for discussion and debate?
7. What sort of excursions are worth while in civic instruction, and how should they be conducted?
8. Are talks upon civics by teachers or citizens worth the trouble and time?
9. How should instruction in civics be differentiated for boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 16 years who are taught in separate classes?
10. What shall we have our classes DO to develop a respect for property? To develop a sense of responsibility for public welfare?
11. In the short space of time allowed for pupils in compulsory continuation schools (four hours per week), what phases of civics would you advise incorporating? What topics may wisely be omitted for this group of pupils?
12. A heavy snowfall and all that it entails may be used as a very suggestive basis for teaching the responsibilities of city and town authorities, as well as those resting upon individual citizens. Can you suggest other practical phases of community life which can be made the basis for valuable instruction in civics?

On Friday morning Mr. Dunn addressed the general session of the Institute on the subject, "Community Civics in Elementary Schools," and Prof. Hart gave an address on "Fresh Points of View in Teaching United States History."

"Whatever worthy sense we attach to the word 'religious,' the Greeks illustrate it. Their extraordinary moral earnestness is obscured for us only by the variety of their appeals to our attention. But they never from first to last allowed religion to swallow morals. They first of men perceived and declared that morals are man-made and are constantly to be altered by man; that the state exists to secure the noblest life for the citizens; that therefore social science, by definition (says Aristotle), deals with right conduct."

The preceding quotation is from "The Greeks on Religion and Morals," a study appearing in the "Unpopular Review" for April-June.



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The History Teacher's Magazine

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Periodical Literature

MARY W. WILLIAMS, PH.D., EDITOR

"La España Moderna" for June, under the heading "The Queens of Old Spain," publishes the first part of a life of Juana the Mad, by the historian Martin Hume.

"Avignon, Legendary and Real," a charming description by Richard Gallienne ("Harper's Magazine," July), indicates the important role played by the French city in the Middle Ages.

"The Victory of Bouvines," which "laid the first stratum of the foundation of indestructible French unity," is described by Henri Malo in "Mercure de France" for July.

A biographical sketch of Joseph Hooker, the first of a series of "Union Portraits" by Gamaliel Bradford, appears in the July "Atlantic"; and one of George H. Thomas, in the August number.

"The Development of Research along the Lines of Historical Geography in Germany During Two Centuries," a paper by Dr. Fritz Curschmann, begins in the July number of "Archiv für Kulturgeschichte."

"Die Friedens-Warte" for July is a memorial issue devoted entirely to an appreciation of the late Baroness Bertha von Suttner, the pacifist. The number is profusely illustrated.

The "Russian Review" for May introduces a serial account of "Elementary Public Instruction in Russia," by Ivan Klyuzhev, beginning with the foundation of the Empire.

In the July "Overland Monthly" is the first installment of "The Log of a 49er," made up of extracts from the diary of Theodore Messerve, who went to California via the Horn in 1849.

The "Virginia Magazine of History and Biography" for July publishes some interesting Revolutionary correspondence addressed to Colonel Josiah Parker. It includes letters from Jefferson, Steuben, Lafayette and others.

The "Southwestern Historical Quarterly" for July contains the following articles of interest: "Early Sentiment for the Annexation of California," by Robert Glass Cleland; "Beginnings of the Secession Movement in Texas," by Anna Irene Sandbo; "Southern Opposition to the Annexation of Texas," by Elizabeth Howard West.

"Sardis, the City of Croesus," an illustrated article in "Travel" for August, describes the "first American invasion of Lydia," the excavation under direction of Professor Butler, of Princeton, which uncovered the ancient Lydian capital to the world. The writer, William Warfield, was a member of the archaeological expedition.

Under the title "England and Germany" ("British Review," July), George Renwick considers the general foreign policies of the two powers and their diplomatic relations towards each other. The article, which is primarily a reply to an inflammatory contribution to the May "Review," defends Germany from charges of ruthless imperialistic designs, and aims to show that she, too, is animated by worthy desires, which can best be filled by friendly cooperation with England.

In "World's Work" for August appears "Asia Awake and Arising," by Sherwood Eddy, secretary for Asia of the international committee of the Y. M. C. A. "So vast and widespread is this awakening that it might well be called 'The Renaissance of Asia.' And yet it is more than this; it is an intellectual renaissance, a religious reformation, and a nineteenth century of scientific and industrial development all combined. It is even greater in volume and in power than the renaissance of Europe five centuries ago."

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

LONGFORD, JOSEPH H. *The Evolution of New Japan*. Cambridge: At the University Press, New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 165. \$0.40 net.

The author of this little book announces that it has at least one original feature—its cheapness. In the reviewer's opinion that is not its only merit. It is a compact, clear, and interesting account of the modernizing of Japan since 1867. In two short introductory chapters the author summarizes the history of Japan up to the abolition of the dual control of Shogun and Emperor in 1867. Then he devotes most of the book to the long reign of the recently deceased Emperor Mutsu Hito. First, he shows how feudalism was overthrown, the country unified, and a new set of political and economic institutions set up. It is very interesting to see how rapidly Japan is taking the steps in political and economic evolution from feudal barbarism which required such tedious periods of time in Europe. In the latter part of the book the author surveys the development of Japanese trade and industry since 1867 and her foreign relations during the same period. He closes with a brief characterization of the late Emperor, who did so much to make modern Japan.

The book is an admirable brief history of a country all too little known to Americans. It will prove very informing to the general reader and an excellent reference book for courses in modern history which take account of the tremendous awakening of the Orient.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

BEARD, CHARLES A., and MARY R. BEARD. *American Citizenship*. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1914. Pp. xiii, 330. \$1.00.

In an increasing number of High Schools civil government is being placed in the first year, primarily to secure that all their pupils shall have the training for citizenship which this subject can give. The various texts written for the senior year are not really serviceable for this earlier course, in which the description of the details of political organization should give way to emphasis on the great principles of government. And on the other hand, a more advanced book is needed than in the eighth grade where the community aspect of government may well receive most attention. It is to meet this new intermediate need that this book has been written. Another novel feature claimed for it is its effort to recognize duly the presence of many girls as well as boys in the civics classes by emphasizing throughout the book the importance to-day to the state of woman's position in the family, in industry, before the law, and in the intellectual life of the community.

In general plan the book starts with the individual, the first six chapters constituting Part I, having the following subjects: "The Nature of Modern Government;" "Food, Clothing and Shelter;" "The Family;" "Civil Liberty;" "Property Rights;" "Political Liberty." Part II, made up of seven chapters, treats of the machinery of government—officers, elections and parties. Of Part III, the first four chapters take up the work of government, a chapter each being devoted to the Federal, the State, the municipal, and the rural government. The last chapter treats of the

relation of public opinion to government. Each chapter is followed by questions based on the text. These seem too simple and too few to be of much assistance to either teacher or pupil, but following the last chapter there are "Research Questions," which are full of suggestiveness and promise of service. Brief lists of readings are given with each chapter, and 26 full-page illustrations are provided as well as the text of the Constitution.

The accuracy of the book is guaranteed by Professor Beard's scholarship, the suitability of the material for first year pupils seems evident, and the presentation of it is sufficiently simple so that it is not beyond their comprehension.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

DAVIS, WILLIAM STEARNS. *A History of Medieval and Modern Europe*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1914. Pp. xxviii, 560. \$1.50.

It has sometimes been said of High School text-books written by college professors that they were too difficult for immature readers; that the author did not get down to the level of the students. Surely such a criticism will not be brought against this book. On the contrary, it may be questioned whether the author may not have gone too far in removing difficulties from the path of the student. At any rate, this book seems more elementary than most of the text-books published in recent years.

The book begins with the decline of the Roman Empire and gives 60 pages to the period before 800 A.D., where the High School course in Medieval History usually begins. Of the remaining part of the book, some 317 pages are given to the period between 800 and 1789; 75 pages to the period from 1789 to 1815; and 106 pages to the period since 1815. It is evident therefore that it does not stress the recent period to the extent suggested by the Report of the Committee of Five. Or, looking at it as the author divides the book, 228 pages (40% of the whole) are devoted to Medieval History—the period before the Reformation. The book seems therefore to belong in the older class with the text-books written in accordance with the Report of the Committee of Seven, perhaps compromising slightly with the newer trend.

As the author says in the preface, "this book is to tell the story of the building of Europe." It does not treat of such problems as the Expansion of Europe or the relations of Europe to World Politics. The author realizes that "this is a misfortune," but justifies it on the ground of "the need of adhering to the main thread of what is at best a very long narrative."

The style is interesting and the book is certainly readable. The author has used a bold type to indicate at a glance what he considers the most important points on each page and explains in parenthesis or foot-notes terms or expressions which might not be clear to the student. It is made even clearer by the large number of illustrations, there being altogether 110 illustrations, besides 36 portraits, all of which are listed in the Appendix and page references given. There are 35 maps, five of which are colored. In addition to the above, the Appendix contains a short but well-selected list of books on European history with an estimate of the value of each. Finally, each chapter is accompanied by "Review" questions and topics based upon the text and "Exercises" designed to lead the student into the short collateral reading list which follows.

W. P. SHORTRIDGE.

North High School, Minneapolis.

**LIST OF BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT
PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM
APRIL 25 TO JUNE 20, 1914**

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History

- Alderman, Alva B. Students' History of the U. S. Marion, Ia.: Educator Pub. Co. 446 pp. \$1.25.
- Andrews, Mathew P. History of the United States. Phila.: Lippincott. 382 pp. \$1.10.
- Ashby, Thomas A. The valley campaign [Civil War, Shenandoah Valley]. N. Y.: Neale. 327 pp. \$2.00.
- Bateman, Newton, and others, editors. Historical encyclopedia of Illinois, and history of Rock Island County. In 2 vols. Chicago: Munsell Pub. Co. \$18.00.
- Bolton, Herbert E., editor. Athanasie de Mézières and the Louisiana-Texas frontier. In 2 vols. Cleveland: A. H. Clarke Co. (4 p. bibl.) \$10.00.
- Bryan, Wilhelmus B. A history of the national capital, etc. Vol. I, 1790-1814. N. Y.: Macmillan. 669 pp. \$5.00 net.
- Burr, George L., editor. Narratives of the witchcraft cases, 1648-1706. N. Y.: Scribner. 487 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Burrage, Henry S., compiler. The beginnings of colonial Maine, 1602-1658. [Portland, Me.: State Lib.] 412 pp. Privately printed.
- Chase, F. D. The story of the centmaker and the first colonial mint in North America. [Boston: Walker-Longfellow Co.] 31 pp. Gratis.
- Clark, Daniel E., compiler. One hundred topics in Iowa history. Iowa City, Iowa: State Hist. Soc. 44 pp.
- Clark, Rev. Geo. L. A history of Connecticut; its people and institutions. N. Y.: Putnam. 609 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Cromwell, John W. The negro in American history. Wash., D. C.: Amer. Negro Acad. 284 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$1.25 net.
- Dowrie, George W. The development of banking in Illinois, 1817-1863. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 181 pp. (3½ pp. bibl.) 90c.
- Esarey, Logan. State banking in Indiana, 1814-1873. [Bloomington, Ind.: Univ. of Ind.] 219-305 pp. 50c.
- Fitch, Abigail H. Junipero Serra, the man and his work. [Early Spanish California.] Chicago: McClurg. 364 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Goddard, Pliny Earle. Indians of the Southwest. N. Y.: Am. Mus. Nat. Hist. 191 pp. 50c.
- Holden, Charles F. The Quakers in Great Britain and America * * * from the 17th to the 20th century. [Pasadena, Cal.: The Author, 975 Bellefontaine St.] 669 pp. \$6.00 net.
- Hough, Walter. Culture of the ancient pueblos of the upper Gila River. Wash., D. C.: Gov't Pr. Off. 139 pp.
- Jones, Jenkin L. An artilleryman's diary. Madison, Wis.: Wis. Hist. Comm. 395 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Jordan, John W. A history of Delaware Co., Penna.: In 3 vols. N. Y.: Lewis Hist. Pub. Co. \$20.00.
- Kemp, William W. The support of schools in colonial New York by the Soc. for the Propagation of the Gospel, etc. N. Y.: Teachers' Coll., Columbia Univ. 279 pp. \$2.00.
- Linderman, Frank B., compiler. A calendar of historic events of the State of Montana. [Dew Lodge, Mont.: The Author.] 40 pp. 50c.
- McAllister, Joseph T. McAllister's data on the Virginia militia in the Revolution. Dayton, Va.: Ruebush-Elkins Co., 380 pp. \$5.00.
- Monroe, Joel H. Schenectady, ancient and modern, 1661-1914. [Geneva, N. Y.: N. F. Humphrey.] 285 pp. \$3.00.
- Morton, Frederic. Middle Augusta; the heart of Appala-

- chian America. Dayton, Va.: Ruebush-Elkins Co. 500 pp. \$5.00.
- Newark, N. J. A history of the city of Newark, N. J., 1666-1913. In 3 vols. N. Y.: Lewis Hist. Pub. Co. \$25.00.
- Newton, Arthur P. The colonizing activities of the English puritans. New Haven, Ct.: Yale Univ. 344 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Palmer, Benjamin F. The diary of B. F. Palmer, privateersman, while a prisoner on British warships at sea, etc. New Haven, Ct.: [W. F. Hopson, 730 Whitney Ave.] 274 pp. \$7.00.
- Parsons, E. Dudley. The story of Minneapolis. Minneapolis: [Colwell Press.] 182 pp. 60c.
- Perry, Arthur C., and Price, G. A. American History. In 2 books. Book 1, 1492-1783; Book 2, 1783-date. N. Y.: Am. Bk. Co. 314, 313 pp. Each 60c.
- Porter, P. A. Niagara County's share in the battle of Lake Erie. Niagara Falls, N. Y.: [The Author.] 15 pp. Privately printed.
- Read, Benj. M. Chronological digest of the "Documentos ineditos de Archivo de las Indias." Albuquerque, N. M.: Albright and Anderson. 161 pp. \$1.00.
- Simons, Algie M. Social forces in American history. N. Y.: Macmillan. 325 pp. 50c. net.
- Stephenson, Nathaniel W. An American history. Boston: Ginn & Co. 604 pp. \$1.50.
- Taylor, F. Hamilton. Philadelphia in the Civil War. [Philadelphia, The City.] 360 pp. Privately printed.
- Trexler, Harrison A. Slavery in Missouri, 1804-1865. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Univ. 259 pp. (10½ pp. bibl.) \$1.25.
- Usher, Ellis B. Wisconsin, its story and biography, 1848-1913. 8 vols. Chicago: Lewis Pub. Co. \$25.00.
- Warden, Sibyl D. An elementary history of the U. S. Oklahoma City, Okla.: Warden Co. 326 pp. 75c.
- Webster, Kimball. History of Hudson, N. Y., 1673-1912. Manchester, N. H.: Granite State Pub. Co. 648 pp. \$3.50 net.

Ancient History

- Ballou, Susan H. The manuscript tradition of the Historia Augusta. [N. Y.: Lemeke & Beuchner.] 89 pp. 90c. net.
- Botsford, Geo. Willis. A history of the ancient world. In 2 books. N. Y.: Macmillan. 310, 278 pp. (bibl. each.) \$1.00 net.
- Furtwängler, Adolph, and Ulrichs, H. L. Greek and Roman Sculpture. N. Y.: Dutton. 241 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Hall, Edith H. Excavations in Eastern Crete, Vrokastro. Phila.: Univ. of Penna. 185 pp. \$5.00.
- Knowlton, Daniel C., compiler. Illustrated topics for ancient history. Phila.: McKinley Pub. Co. 116 pp. 65c.
- Moulton, James H. Early Zoroastrianism. [N. Y.: Scribner.] 468 pp. \$3.50 net.

English History

- Allen, Cardinal William. Defense of English Catholics; reprinted from the edition of 1584. In 2 vols. St. Louis: Herder. 110, 152 pp. Each 30c. net.
- Butler, J. R. M. The passing of the great Reform Bill [1832]. N. Y.: Longmans. 454 pp. (4 p. bibl.) \$3.75 net.
- Chronica Johannis de Reading. et Anonymi Cantuariensis, 1346-1367. [N. Y.: Longmans.] 394 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Dillon, Lord H. A. L., and Hope, W. H. S., editors. Pageant of the birth, life, and death of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, 1389-1439, from the original Mss. in the B. M. N. Y.: Longmans. 109 pp. \$7.00 net.

Ieely, H. E. M. English history; illustrated from original sources. N. Y.: Macmillan. 107 pp. 60c. net.
Jones, W. Garmon, compiler. York and Lancaster, 1399-1485. A source book. N. Y.: Macmillan. 120 pp. 35c. net.

Macaulay, Thomas B., Lord. The history of England. In 6 vols. Vol. 2. N. Y.: Macmillan. 522 p. \$3.25 net.

Medieval History

Lützow, Franz H. H. V., Count Von. The Hussite Wars. N. Y.: Dutton. 384 pp. \$4.50 net.

Mann, Horace K., D.D. Nicholas Breakspear (Hadrian IV), A.D., 1154-1159, the only English pope. St. Louis: Herder. 134 pp. \$1.00 net.

Margoliuth, David S. The early development of Mohammedanism. N. Y.: Scribner. 265 pp. \$2.00 net.

Martins, Oliveira J. P. The golden age of Prince Henry, the Navigator. N. Y.: Dutton. 324 pp. \$3.50.

Williams, Egerton R., Jr. Lombard towns of Italy. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 590 pp. \$1.75 net.

Modern History

Fleischman, Hector. Behind the scenes in the Reign of Terror. N. Y.: Brentano. \$4.00 net.

Hare, Christopher. Men and women of the Italian reformation. N. Y.: Scribner. 309 pp. (1/2 pp. bibl.) \$3.00 net.

Hooper, George. The campaign of Sedan. N. Y.: Macmillan. 382 pp. 35c. net.

McClure, W. K. Italy in North Africa; an account of the Tripoli enterprise. Phila.: Winston. \$2.50 net.

Seeböhm, Frederic. Customary acres, and their historical importance. N. Y.: Longmans. 274 pp. \$4.00 net.

Vassile, Count Paul. France from behind the veil; 50 years of social and political life. N. Y.: Funk & Wagnalls. 396 pp. \$3.75 net.

Whitman, Sidney. Turkish memories [author was N. Y. Herald correspondent 1896-98, etc.] N. Y.: Scribner. 306 pp. \$2.25 net.

Miscellaneous

Anderson, Charles L. G., M.D. Old Panama and Costilla del Oro. Boston: Page Co. 559 pp. (10 1/2 pp. bibl.) \$3.50 net.

De Lara, L. Gutierrez, and Pinchon, Edgrumb. The Mexican people; their struggle for freedom. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 360 pp. \$1.50 net.

Enock, C. Reginald. Ecuador, its ancient and modern history. N. Y.: Scribner. 375 pp. \$3.00 net.

Ferrero, Guglielmo. Ancient Rome and modern America. N. Y.: Putnam. 352 pp. \$2.50 net.

Grieve, William F. History of South America. Cleveland, O.: Central Pub. Ho. 583 pp. \$2.00.

MacHugh, R. J. Modern Mexico * * * with an appendix containing the full text of the Mexican Constitution. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 342 pp. \$3.50 net.

Morris, Charles. The Story of Mexico. Phila.: Universal Book and Bible House. 340 pp. \$1.20.

Starr, Frederic. Mexico and the United States. Chicago: Bible House. 441 pp. \$3.50.

Biography

Asbury, Bp. Francis. The heart of Asbury's Journal. N. Y.: Methodist Book Concern. 720 pp. \$1.50 net.

Woodward, W. H. Caesar Borgia; a biography. N. Y.: Dutton. 477 pp. \$3.50 net.

Caroline, Marie, Queen of Naples. Mémoire de Marie Caroline reine de Naples, pub. pour la première fois [etc.] par R. M. Johnston. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. 340 pp. \$2.00 net.

Suffield, Charles Harbord, Lord. Memories of King Edward VII, 1830-1913. N. Y.: Brentano. \$3.75 net.

Brigham, Johnson. James Harlan. Iowa City, Ia.: State Hist. Soc. 398 pp. \$2.00.

Lee, Rich. Henry. The letters of Richard Henry Lee. Vol. 2. N. Y.: Macmillan. 608 pp. \$2.50 net.

Goss, Dwight. Lincoln, the man and the statesman. Chicago: Row, Peterson. 9-61 pp. 10c.

Grisar, Rev. Hartman. Luther. Vol. 3. St. Louis: Herder. 449 pp. \$3.25 net.

Stirling, Anna, M.D. Macdonald of the Isles. [History of the Macdonald clan.] N. Y.: John Lane. 295 pp. \$4.00 net.

Clark, Allen C. Life and letters of Dolly Madison. Wash., D. C.: W. F. Roberts Co. 517 pp. \$4.00.

Slocum, Charles E., M.D. The life and services of Maj. Gen. Henry W. Slocum. Toledo, Ohio: Slocum Pub. Co. 391 pp. (3 pp. bibl.) \$4.50.

Sulzer, William. Governor Sulzer, the political bosses and the legislature. [N. Y.: The Author, 115 B'way.] 57 pp.

Ogg, Frederic A. Daniel Webster. Phila.: Jacobs. 432 pp. (4 pp. bibl.) \$1.25 net.

Government and Politics

Adams, Charles F. The Monroe Doctrine and Mommsen's law. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 43 pp. 50c. net.

Altham, Edward A. The principles of war, historically illustrated. Vol. 1. N. Y.: Macmillan. 435 pp. \$3.50 net.

American Acad. of Soc. and Pol. Science. State regulation of public utilities. Phila.: [The Author.] 357 pp. \$1.00.

Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary R. American citizenship. N. Y.: Macmillan. 330 pp. \$1.00 net.

Bigelow, John, Jr. American policy; the western hemisphere in its relation to the eastern. N. Y.: Scribner. 184 pp. (6 pp. bibl.) \$1.00 net.

Bizzell, William B. Judicial interpretation of political theory. N. Y.: Putnam. 273 pp. \$1.50 net.

Brown, Wrisley. Impeachment; a monograph on the impeachment of the federal judiciary. Wash., D. C.: Gov't Pr. Off. 18 pp.

Fillebrown, Charles B. Taxation. Chicago: McClurg. 163 pp. 50c.

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